Central States Speech Journal

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C. S. S. J. IN TRANSITION
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RESEARCH REPORTS

NEWS AND NOTES

PUBLISHED BY THE CENTRAL STATES SPEECH ASSOCIATION

THE CENTRAL STATES SPEECH JOURNAL

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The Central States Speech Association

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Undergraduate Speech Instruction.....Bernard F. Phelps, Miami University
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The *Central States Speech Journal* is the official periodical of the Central States Speech Association. The *Journal* publishes all types of articles pertaining to the field of speech. Publication consideration by the editorial staff is in terms of pertinence, scholarship and style.

Manuscripts should be sent directly to the Editor or to the appropriate member of the editorial staff. Each manuscript will be reviewed by three members of the staff before a publication decision is made by the Editor.

All reports of original research should be organized around the usual pattern of background of the study and statement of purpose, methodology and procedures, analysis of data and results, summary and conclusions. If standard statistical methods are employed they need not be defined beyond naming. Any manuscript based on a thesis or dissertation should be so marked, with the name of the director of the study supplied.

Although articles in the *Journal* may vary considerably in length, they should not exceed 4000 words. Contributions to the "Research Reports" section should not exceed 500 words. The number of words in all copy should be indicated in the upper right hand corner of the first page.

All copy should be double-spaced on 8½" x 11" bond paper. The author should retain a duplicate copy to facilitate future correspondence with the Editor. The first page of the text should start with the title centered at the top of the page and in capitals. The name of the author or authors should be centered two spaces below the title and in capitals and lower case. The statement of central theme should start flush with the left margin and should be in capitals and lower case underlined. (See examples of statement of central theme in issues of *CSSJ* beginning with Volume XIII, Number 1). Authors are encouraged to provide sub-headings to help clarify organization. These sub-headings should be centered and in underlined capitals and lower case. Footnotes and tables should appear on separate pages following the final page of the manuscript.

In all matters not covered above, manuscripts should conform to *The MLA Style Sheet*. Copies may be secured from the Treasurer, Modern Language Association, 6 Washington Square North, New York City 3, New York. Price: 50 cents.

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C.S.S.J. IN TRANSITION

An Editorial

In keeping with the tradition of editors past and present, it is perhaps appropriate in this issue initiating the new triennium to pay some tributes *ex post facto* and make some assertions concerning the projected course of the *Journal.*

The preceding editorial staffs headed by Lionel Crocker (1949-51), Paul Moore (1951-53), Kim Giffin (1953-58), and Keith Brooks (1958-61) have nurtured the *Journal* and raised it to a position of influence extending far beyond the borders of the Central States area. I judge this has been accomplished largely through their insistence on publishing a variety of articles of quality and interest from sources restricted neither by geography nor scholastic discipline. This point of view, which was particularly apparent after the *Journal* became a triannual publication, will be continued.

Although the *Journal* has nominally been a triannual publication since 1958, a fourth volume, consisting of a membership directory and the C.S.S.A. constitution, has been published each of the last two years. This activity has been formally adopted as standard procedure, and beginning with this issue the *Journal* will be listed as a quarterly publication.

The editorial staff of *C.S.S.J.* will be structured in a somewhat different manner than in the past. In order to accommodate those subject-matter areas in which a great deal of writing is done, and at the same time encourage those subject-matter areas in which contributions have been somewhat limited, the past method of dividing subject-matter into areas equivalent to the SAA interest groups has been altered. Instead, some areas have been combined, and others have been fragmented or eliminated; the total number of areas now is slightly fewer than in the immediate past. This present structure, incidentally, is firm but not rigid; if circumstances suggest a different structure to be more appropriate, changes will be made. The members of the editorial staff are introduced elsewhere in the *Journal.*

You may have noticed that a new regular feature, "Research Reports," has been added to the *Journal.* It's purpose is to provide a medium through which various types of research which otherwise might not be made available to our readers can be reported. The assumption here is that although these studies may not be of sufficient depth or general import to warrant the space of an article, they still are of sufficient interest to particular groups of readers to warrant reproducing. Such reports ordinarily should not exceed 500 words in length.

In addition to "Research Reports," the *Journal* will occasionally publish other feature articles of particular note or significance to C.S.S.A. members or our readers in general.

The publication rationale which the *C.S.S.J.* of the immediate future will try to reflect necessarily depends on the role of the *Journal* as visualized by its editor. Since we are nominally a regional journal, a major criterion in determining role should revolve around the needs and interests of the Central States membership. At the same time, an effort should be made to avoid unnecessary overlap in content between the S.A.A. publications and our own.

A frequently noted criticism of the current national and regional journals as a whole in our discipline is the limited encouragement given (for a variety of reasons) to efforts to systematically measure and quantify the relationships between the various dimensions and forms of oral communication and human behavior. Therefore, I'm inclined to view the contribution that *C.S.S.J.* can make to the fields of speech primarily in the light of each subject-matter area's role as a process and medium of communication. It seems to me that *C.S.S.J.* can potentially contribute most to its readers by making a particular effort to include in its pages those studies and observations dealing with the measurable characteristics of attitude and behavior change throughout the spectrum of research in oral communication.

This certainly does not mean that the more traditional approaches to research in speech are not fruitful nor that *C.S.S.J.* will not publish such research and comments—far from it! It means instead that there are other, non-traditional roads to knowledge in and about the forms of oral communication, and that we are remiss if we don't encourage careful examination of these frontiers too.

An appropriate balance in the articles published, both in terms of subject-matter, methodology, and point of view, constantly will be sought. When necessary, however, publication preference will go to those articles of quality in content and methodology which the other journals in our area seem to underemphasize or slight.

If the rationale described above can be supported, I am confident that the *Journal* will continue to grow in stature and influence as the Central States Speech Association flourishes!

ROBERT S. GOYER

Meet the Editors

The *Editor*, Robert S. Goyer (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1955), is Associate Professor of Speech and Associate Director of the Communication Research Center of the Department of Speech at Purdue University. He has authored articles in the areas of listening and persuasion in the *Audio-Visual Communication Review* and the *Central States Speech Journal*, respectively. Dr. Goyer is currently chairman of the Behavioral Sciences Interest Group of the Speech Association of America and is a member of the Advisory Committee of the Undergraduate Speech Interest Group.

The *Associate Editor*, John T. Rickey (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1955), is Associate Professor of Speech and Director of the annual Indiana High School Debaters' Conference and Student Legislative Assembly at Purdue University. Formerly Editor of the American Forensic Association *Register*, he has also written for *C.S.S.J.* In addition to his A.F.A. activities, Dr. Rickey is a member of the Advisory Committee of the History of Speech Education Interest Group of the S.A.A.

The contributing editor for the *Research Reports* feature is Frank E. X. Dance (Ph.D., Northwestern University, 1959), an Assistant Professor of Speech at the University of Kansas. Dr. Dance's articles in the area of Speech Education have appeared in such journals as *Western Speech* and *The Bulletin of Education*. He is currently Secretary of the S.A.A. Business and Professional Speaking Interest Group.

John Tolch (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1959), Assistant Professor of Speech at the University of Wisconsin, edits the *News and Notes* feature. Any personal or professional items of interest to our readers should be sent directly to Dr. Tolch for inclusion in the *News* section.

Milton J. Wiksell (Ph.D., Louisiana State University, 1948), is consulting editor in the area of *Adult Speech Education*. He is an Associate Professor at Michigan State University and his articles dealing with adult speech education have appeared in *Today's Speech* and *Management Review*. Dr. Wiksell is currently on the Board of Advisors of the American Institute of Parliamentarians.

The consulting editor for the *Audiology* area is Ernest J. Burgi (Ph.D., University of Pittsburgh, 1957), Associate Professor of Audiology and Speech Pathology at the University of Nebraska. His articles in the area of palsied speech and the speech of multiple sclerosis patients have appeared in the *Journal of Clinical Psychology* and the *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*. Dr. Burgi is currently a member of the Publications Board of the American Speech and Hearing Association and Secretary-Treasurer of the Nebraska Speech and Hearing Association.

Assisting in the area of *Business and Industrial Communications* is James N. Holm (Ph.D., Western Reserve University, 1957), Professor of Speech at Kent State University. He has written for *Today's Speech* and is currently a member of the Advisory Committee of the Business and Professional Speaking Interest Group of the S.A.A.

Representing the area of *Communication Theory and Processes* is Paul W. Keller (Ph.D., Northwestern University, 1955). Dr. Keller is Chairman of the Department of Speech at Manchester College, although he is currently enjoying a sabbatical leave to continue post-doctoral study at Stanford University. His article on listening research appeared in a recent issue of the *Journal of Communication*.

Paul H. Cashman (Ph.D., University of Minnesota, 1957), is the consulting editor for the *Discussion and Group Methods* area. He is Associate Professor of Rhetoric at the University of Minnesota (St. Paul campus) and is a frequent speaker in the area of group processes at communications conferences.

Consulting editor for the *Experimental Public Address* area is Ted J. Barnes (Ph.D., State University of Iowa, 1960). He is Assistant Professor of Speech and Associate Director of the Experimental Research Laboratory in Public Address and Discussion in the Department of Speech at the University of Illinois. Dr. Barnes is a member of the Research Committee of the Behavioral Sciences Interest Group of S.A.A.

Georgia B. Bowman (Ph.D., State University of Iowa, 1956), is consulting editor for *Forensics*. She is Professor of Speech and English at William Jewell College where she is Director of Forensics. She is President of the Speech Association of Missouri and a member of the National Council of Pi Kappa Delta.

For the area of *General Semantics*, Parke G. Burgess (Ph.D., Northwestern University, 1956), is consulting editor. He is Assistant Professor of Public Address in the Department of Public Address and Group Communications in the School of Speech, Northwestern University. Dr. Burgess is Vice Chairman of the General Semantics and Related Methodologies Interest Group of S.A.A.

Consulting editor for the *Oral Interpretation* area is Elbert R. Bowen (Ph.D., University of Missouri, 1950). He is Professor of Speech and Drama in the Department of Speech at Central Michigan University and is the author of articles on interpretation in the *Speech Teacher* and *C.S.S.J.* Dr. Bowen is a member of the Advisory Committee of the Interpretation Interest Group of S.A.A.

Samuel L. Becker (Ph.D., State University of Iowa, 1953), is Professor of Speech and Director of the Division of Television, Radio and Films at the University of Iowa, as well as consulting editor in the area of *Radio-Television-Film*. He is the author of several recent articles on the instructional uses of radio and television in *Q.J.S.* and *Speech Monographs*. Dr. Becker is currently Chairman of the Publications Committee of S.A.A., and Chairman of the Research Committee of NAEB.

Consulting editor for the *Rhetoric and Historical Public Address* area is Carl Allen Pitt (Ph.D., Purdue University, 1952). He is Associate Professor of Speech at the University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago. Dr. Pitt is Chairman of the Business and Professional Speaking Interest Group and Vice Chairman of the Discussion and Group Methods Interest Group of S.A.A.

Speech Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools is the consulting area for Edna E. Gilbert (Ph.D., University of Wisconsin, 1950). She is Professor of Speech and Director of the Clinic at State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota. Dr. Gilbert has written in her area of specialization for the *Speech Teacher*.

Advising in the area of *Speech for Religious Workers* is Lowell G. McCoy (M.A., Ohio State University, 1949). He is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Speech in Hebrew Union College, and is co-editor of *Sermons Preached in Chapel: 1960-61*. Mr. McCoy is a member of the College Curriculum Committee of the Speech for Religious Workers Interest Group of the S.A.A.

Consulting editor for the *Speech Pathology* area is Thayne A. Hedges (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1955). He is Professor of Speech Science at Phillips University, Enid, Oklahoma, and is also Director of the Community Speech and Hearing Center, Inc., in Enid. Dr. Hedges is a member of the sub-committee on Clinical Standards of A.S.H.A., President of the Oklahoma Speech and Hearing Association, and is a member of the Board of Directors of the Oklahoma Rehabilitation Association.

Bill G. Hulsopple (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1958) is Assistant Professor of Speech and Drama in Eastern Michigan University, and is consulting editor in the area of *Theatre and Dramatic Arts*. He has recent articles in *Players Magazine* and *Central States Speech Journal* on theatre subjects.

Consulting editor for the *Undergraduate Speech Instruction* area is Bernard F. Phelps (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1957). He is Associate Professor of Speech at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. Dr. Phelps is Vice Chairman and a member of the Advisory Committee of the Undergraduate Speech Instruction Interest Group of S.A.A.

Consulting in the area of *Voice—Phonetics—Linguistics* is Sheila G. Morrison (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1955). She is Assistant Professor of Speech at Ohio State University, and has written for *Speech Monographs* in her special area.

The Meets and Bounds of Speech and Law

GEORGE P. RICE

This article surveys the frontiers where speech, assembly, and the right to be silent meet the law in terms of philosophy of free speech of the United States Supreme Court, constitutional law, tort law, rights in intellectual property, and academic and corporate use of parliamentary law.

"Words are not only the keys to persuasion, but the triggers of action . . . "

Judge Learned Hand

I

This paper intends to present a working outline of the points of contact between public address in its various aspects and civil and criminal substantive law. There are imperative reasons why it should be available to teachers and students of speech. There is an increasing volume of legislative and case law affecting speech and assembly in the domain of international law, especially in the forum of The United Nations. Both federal and state legislatures and judges have added immensely to the safeguards and restrictions of speech as a civil and political concept. Few individual speakers are well informed about the legal sanctions they may encounter in the actual practice of their art. And, finally, surveys show that very large numbers of high school and college students are ignorant of basic relations of speech to law in the areas of speech, assembly, and the right to be silent.[1]

By "meets and bounds" is meant the points where the various practical aspects of public address, including copyright, slander, constitutional limitations, and tort liability, come into direct contact with civil and criminal rules of law with consequences to the speakers, the audiences, and the public. As used here, the term embraces communication in all its forms, whether vis-a-vis, by radio, by loud-speaker, or by television. Definition of public speaking as contrasted with private speaking must stress that the former term implies any activity arising out of speech which may affect the legally protected rights of others.

II

There are at least seven major points where speech and law meet: the philosophical and psychological values of speech laid down in relevant court decisions by the judges themselves;[2] the historical outline of their joint social growth;[3] the international law concepts found in statutes and cases;[4] the rules and decisions in American constitutional law;[5] the property rights in public address as a form of intellectual property recognized under copyright law;[6] the regulations of tort law in matters such as slander or wrongful use of tele-

George P. Rice (Ph.D., Cornell University, 1944), Professor of Speech at Butler University, is also a member of the Indiana Bar. This topic was originally discussed before a General Session of the Indiana Speech Association in Indianapolis in 1959.

phone party lines;[7] and applications of parliamentary law and procedure both in social and corporate situations.[8] Each of these will be examined briefly and in turn.

A. The philosophical and psychological values thought by judges to inhere in the free exercise of speech and assembly are found in relevant opinions of federal and state jurists. Taken together, they reveal what judges have had to say over the course of some forty years about the role of speech in a free society. They show that American courts associate these advantages with free public discussion: it stimulates thought; it encourages men in their search for truth; it releases people from the subjective emotional tensions produced by the stress and strain of politics, religion, race, and economics; it advances vigorous public discussion and aids thought to retain its questing function; and it corrects prejudice and error in a society striving to maintain belief in itself and ideals.

B. The historical approach to relations of speech and law records significant social developments among men, institutions, and procedures where speech is a factor. It begins with Homer and continues to the present. Examples are the tetralogies of Antiphon, the growth of civil and criminal trial procedure in the courts of Greece and Rome, the personal rights articles of Magna Charta, the Tudor and Stuart debate on privilege vs. prerogative, and the debates and legislation attendant upon revolutionary epochs in England and America.[9]

C. The field of international law as an arena for the exercise of public address and other civil and political rights is a new one. It dates from the International Declaration of Human Rights adopted by The General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948. These principles represent an ideal to be reached in future, a goal of basic liberties to be enjoyed by all men everywhere. The core and essence of these aims for speech is found in three Articles of the Declaration: Article 18: "Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion, or belief, and freedom either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship, and observance." Article 19: "Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this includes freedom to hold opinion without interference and to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas through any medium and regardless of frontiers." Article 20: "Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association."

Problems of sovereignty and jurisdiction, highlighted by the Eichmann trial, are complex and for future solution, especially in instances where an individual complains of a national state.

D. Rules and decisions under constitutional law embrace a study of federal and state constitutions and statutes and the decisions written under their authority. Here one finds concentrated the attempts of the courts to balance the interest of the individual in free expression as opposed to the public interest in peace, quiet, and safety. Cases have provided an equitable solution to conflicting interests suggested by questions such as these: What is the interest deemed to require the regula-

tion of speech and assembly? What method is used to such end? What mode of speech is thereby regulated? Where does the speaking take place? Of paramount importance here is the standard that all legal restraints upon speech and assembly must be clearly and narrowly drawn. Typical issues raised in litigation of questions of constitutional law are: Is prior censorship valid?[10] To what extent may public places be used for public assembly and discussion?[11] How does government balance the right of a speaker to be heard with the public interest in preventing a breach of the peace caused by hostile reaction of the audience to the utterance?[12] When is the exercise of speech a "clear and present danger" to the common welfare?[13] What are "fighting words?"[14] When is the public use of a loud-speaker an abatable public nuisance?[15] When does a defendant have a right to remain silent in a legal proceeding?[16]

E. Property rights in lectures, addresses, and sermons is a much neglected domain in public speaking. Article I.8 of the United States Constitution creates in the producer of intellectual property certain rights of money value for specified periods of time, spells them out through the relevant portions of the copyright statute and its amendments. Thus, lectures and other forms of oral discourse may be protected for a period of twenty-eight years with an option of renewal for a similar space, provided the formalities of the statute meet compliance. Two copies of the composition to be copyrighted, an Application properly filled in, and a check for four dollars, forwarded to the Register of Copyright in Washington, D. C., will secure a copyright protection in almost every instance. Despite the relative ease with which the cash value inherent in a speech may be secured and protected, the Register reports only a few efforts at obtaining it. For 1955, it is reported that fewer than four hundred speakers sought to copyright their addresses; less than one per cent of these in turn sought renewal. Yet a good lecture or speech may have a definite monetary value for its author. This is especially true of data delivered in the classroom by professors whose livelihood consists in their delivery before paying listeners. And there are classic instances where commercial agents or students have invaded the protected precincts of a lecture and been speedily repelled by the law.[17] Penalties for infringement of copyright are severe.

F. The regulations of tort law are chiefly of interest to speakers when applied in situations involving defamation by slander[18] and to misuse of party telephone lines. Slander is defined as the wrongful invasion of the personality of another by use of the spoken word, causing loss of status of the object of the slanderous remark in the opinions of right-thinking members of the community. Proof of loss in terms of money damages must be shown for recovery. Tort liability for wrongful withholding of use of a telephone line in an emergency is fairly recent in its application. The classic instance is the refusal of a speaker to yield the line to another who wishes to report his house is afire. The harm caused may result in suit for damages caused by the failure to yield use. An action may also be brought in tort for using a telephone as a

means of harassing and annoying others.

G. Academic use of parliamentary law and procedure is well known. Almost everyone who is a member of one society or another knows something about Robert's Rules of Order as a fair, speedy, and accurate guide for the conduct of business. It is perhaps the best known instance in which law and speech are related. But few realize that parliamentary law also governs meetings of directors and stockholders in corporate organization and business. Most state statutes require that the Articles of Incorporation and a Code of By-Laws be filed with the Secretary of State as a preliminary for doing business in a legal manner. All business conducted at meetings of directors and stockholders must conform to parliamentary rules. Proper procedures and records in turn protect the property rights of stockholders and may on occasion determine civil or criminal liability. Because so many Americans have become stockholders through mutual funds and the open market for investment of savings, it follows that a wise man will know something of parliamentary law in order to protect his financial interests. It may be, too, that a unit on corporate uses of parliamentary law would be a proper addition to the present course of study in basic public speaking.

III

Thirty years ago H. A. Wichelns gave definite expression to the province of the literary criticism of oratory. The aim here has been much more modest: to explore the meets and bounds which indicate where speech and law meet so that the public speaker may know his way, enjoying to the full his rights while conscious of his obligations.

FOOTNOTES

1. Rice, *Law for the Public Speaker*, Boston, 1958, pp. 45-7.
2. *Supra*, pp. 14-15.
3. Jones, *The Law and Legal Theory of the Greeks*, Oxford, 1956.
4. Bishop, *International Law*, New York, 1953, pp. 209-11.
5. Emerson and Haber, *Political and Civil Rights in the U. S.*, Buffalo, 1952.
6. Rice, *supra*, Ch. IV.
7. Prosser, *On Torts*, Minnesota, 1941, Ch. 17.
8. Robert, *Parliamentary Practice*, New York, 1949.
9. Levy, *Legacy of Suppression*, Harvard University Press, 1960. Chafee, *Free Speech in the U. S.*, Harvard University Press, 1948.
10. *Near* v. *Minnesota*, 283 U. S. 697 (1931).
11. *Hague* v. *C. I. O.*, 307 U. S. 496 (1939).
12. *Feiner* v. *New York*, 340 U. S. 315 (1951).
13. *Schenck* v. *United States*, 249 U. S. 47 (1919).
14. *Chaplinsky* v. *New Hampshire*, 315 U. S. 568 (1942).
15. *Kovacs* v. *Cooper*, 336 U. S. 77 (1949).
16. *Ullmann* v. *United States*, 67 Sup. Ct. 497 (1956).
17. *Abernethy* v. *Hutchinson*, 1 Hall and Twells Report 40.
18. See *Q. J. S.* XXIX.1.75-8.

A Study of Differences Between Written and Oral Response Delays for University Sophomores*

THEODORE CLEVENGER, JR.

Data reported here show a large and significant difference in average length of response delay between written and oral responses to attitude questions. Several hypotheses are advanced which might account for the observed difference.

In a series of experiments designed to study differences between written and oral language productions of college students, the experimenter observed what appeared to be great differences in response delay between questions requiring a written answer and those calling for an oral one. The present experiment was undertaken to confirm the presence of this phenomenon and to determine the magnitude of any difference which might appear.

Plan of the Experiment

Materials

Verbal responses were obtained by instructing each subject to answer the following two questions:

1. What are your opinions concerning high school education in the United States?
2. What are your opinions concerning the 1960 Presidential election campaign?

Prior experience with subjects similar to those sampled for the present experiment indicated that most subjects would provide ready answers of substantial word-length to these questions. The questions were asked orally and in the above order in all cases.

Subjects

Because the magnitude of difference observed in the prior experiments appeared to be quite large, a small sample was considered adequate for the present study. Twenty-four sophomore students, twelve males and twelve females, were selected. All were enrolled in required beginning speech courses at the University of Wisconsin, had received three years of English language training in high school, and were concurrently enrolled in required (written) English composition courses in the University. None was acquainted with the experimenter.

Procedure

Subjects were informed by their regular classroom speech instructors that they were to participate in an attitude survey and each was assigned a separate appointment hour. Upon arrival at the laboratory, subjects met the experimenter for the first time and were asked to be seated at a table opposite the experimenter, who explained the interview in the following terms:

* *The project reported in this paper was supported in part by a research grant from the Graduate School of the University of Wisconsin.*

Theodore Clevenger, Jr. (Ph.D., Florida State University, 1958) is Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of the Communication and Public Address Experimental Laboratory at the University of Wisconsin.

> "As (your instructor) told you, we are conducting an attitude survey, in which we hope to lay the groundwork for some experiments in attitude change that we hope to conduct later on. Naturally, as a subject for this study, you will not be asked to participate in these later experiments, but we believe that the answers which you give us today will help us to conduct those experiments more efficiently. Now, I am going to ask you two questions. To one of these I want you to write your answer out on this pad, and to the other I want you to tell me your answer aloud and I will take notes on what you say. We want your full and complete opinion on each of these questions, so we have deliberately phrased them in such a way that you cannot answer them with a simple 'yes' or 'no.' We want you to give us whatever opinions you have concerning each of these questions. The only restriction on your answer is that you cannot ask any questions of me after I have asked you the first question. If you have any questions concerning the meaning of either question, interpret it to the best of your ability and answer the question according to your interpretation. Now, before we start, do you have any questions?

After answering any questions, the experimenter presented the subject with the first question. As soon as the subject completed his answer to the first question he was immediately presented with the second.

Each subject responded to one question in writing and to the other orally. In order to distribute order effects, half of each sex group was randomly selected for oral response to the first question and written response to the second, and the remaining half was assigned to the alternate (written-oral) order. Since the intent of the order rotation was to distribute the order effect rather than to introduce another factor into the experiment, no analysis of the order effect is presented.

Measurement

Response delay was measured to the nearest fifth of a second with an Aristo hand stopwatch. Oral response delay was measured from the onset of the final phoneme of the experimenter's question to the onset of the first phoneme of the subject's response. Written response delay was measured from the onset of the final phoneme of the experimenter's question to the onset of a signal introduced by the experimenter at the moment when the subject began to write. All experimental sessions were tape recorded with the aid of a concealed microphone and the response delays were measured from the tape and not in the live situation. Two sets of measurements on different occasions rendered only one discrepancy as great as one-fifth of a second.

Discussion and Results

The resulting array of data may be analyzed as a "Type 1 Mixed" analysis of variance design[1] in which one dimension represents the sex of the respondent and the other represents mode of response. These data are displayed in Table 1. With variances as discrepant as those between the columns, it is obvious that one of the principal assumptions of the analysis of variance is violated, and that significance levels should be adjusted and results interpreted with appropriate caution. The summary of the analysis of variance appears in Table 2.

The most striking feature of the summary data is the large F-ratio attributable to the difference between written and oral mode of response, a ratio more than twice that required for significance at the .001 level of probability. Examination of

TABLE 1
RESPONSE DELAYS (IN SECONDS)

	Subject	*Written*	*Oral*	*Total*
Male	1	24.2	10.2	
	3	58.2	2.8	
	5	104.0	4.4	
	7	41.0	2.4	
	9	38.4	2.0	
	11	19.6	4.4	
	13	35.2	8.4	
	15	26.8	1.8	
	17	56.2	8.4	
	19	8.4	2.4	
	21	6.2	3.6	
	23	31.6	5.4	
	Mean	37.48	4.23	20.86
	Variance	699.26	6.91	
Female	2	28.4	8.6	
	4	24.2	5.8	
	6	40.8	3.8	
	8	26.6	5.4	
	10	93.8	4.6	
	12	15.8	6.0	
	14	47.0	13.0	
	16	10.2	6.2	
	18	28.2	6.6	
	20	32.2	3.8	
	22	28.4	11.8	
	24	8.4	1.4	
	Mean	31.70	6.43	19.07
	Variance	507.68	11.24	
	Mean	34.59	5.33	

Table 1 reveals that for every subject written response delay exceeded oral response delay, usually by a factor of three or more, and that the combined distributions overlap for only eleven of the forty-eight observations.

With such large differences between the response modes in both means and variances, the combination of written and oral response delays to test the sex differences by means of the analysis of variance would appear subject to considerable error. A less sensitive but more realistic test of these differences may be applied by performing a Mann-Whitney U-test upon the written and the oral response delays independently.[2]

In general, the females displayed shorter response delays than the males for the written mode of response, while the males displayed shorter response delays for the oral mode of response; however, only the difference for oral response delay was significant beyond the .05 probability level. Because of the small-

TABLE 2
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source of Variation	*Degrees of Freedom*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*P*
Between Subjects	23	6785.67	.....	.....	.....
Sex	1	38.52	38.52	0.126	>.50
Error (b)	22	6747.15	306.69	.....	.....
Within Subjects	24	17192.62	.....	.....	.....
Mode of Response	1	10272.60	10272.60	33.579	<.001
Sex by Mode Interaction	1	191.19	191.19	0.625	>.50
Error (w)	22	6728.83	305.85	.....	.....
Total	47	23978.29	.....	.....	.....

ness of the samples, this finding of significantly shorter oral response delay for males should be interpreted with caution.

Because this experiment originated in empirical observation rather than formal theory, no effort has been made to place these findings within any theoretical rationale; however, three hypotheses suggest themselves as possible explanations for the data:

1. *Hypothesis of unequal stress.* It has been argued that response delay is an index of psychological stress, a long delay being associated with high stress, especially when the stress is conflict-stress. If a subject perceived the act of committing his opinion to paper as potentially threatening because of the permanence of the written record, he might experience heightened stress and this would be reflected in longer response delay.

2. *Hypothesis of social norms.* It might be argued that there exists a social norm governing permissible length of delay between the asking of a question requiring an oral response and the initiation of the response, but that no such norm prevails with respect to written responses. If a subject perceived the violation of such an hypothetical norm as rude, thoughtless, or inconsiderate, he would tend to respond more quickly in oral than in written communication.

3. *Hypothesis of unequal difficulty.* It is not unreasonable to contend that writing is intrinsically more difficult than talking, and in keeping with a least-effort principle, indivduals are less inclined to waste words on paper than aloud. If this were so, subjects would be inclined to choose their words more carefully when writing an answer so as to express themselves most economically. Under this hypothesis, the response delay may be viewed as planning-time, during which the subject considers the wording of his response.

Summary and Conclusions

Written and oral response delays were obtained for groups of male and female university sophomores. For males, written response delays averaged nearly

nine times as long as oral response delays, and for females, the written mode of response produced delays nearly six times as long as the oral mode. Males produced significantly shorter response delays than females, and there was a nonsignificant trend toward shorter written response delays for females than for males.

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National Debate Proposition and Discussion Question for American Colleges and Universities, 1961-1962

As of August 7, 1961, the Committee on Intercollegiate Discussion and Debate of the Speech Association of America announces the results of the preferential poll of directors of forensics of American colleges and universities to determine the debate proposition and discussion question for nationwide use during the 1961-1962 forensic season. The results are:

National Debate Proposition

Resolved: That labor organizations should be under the jurisdiction of anti-trust legislation.

National Discussion Question

What procedures should the Federal Government follow to protect the civil rights of all citizens?

The Committee appends no qualifications or definitions to the announced proposition or question; any "official" interpretations by the Committee are forbidden.

If circumstances should arise which render the regularly selected proposition or question unsuitable, the Committee may, by two-thirds vote, rephrase the proposition or question, or select an entirely new proposition or question.

The Therapist As A Listener

Dominick A. Barbara

The basis of any therapeutic situation is communication. An understanding of and feeling for what goes on when one person talks and another listens is the foundation stone for modern techniques in the practice of psychotherapy. Therefore most important as a corrective agent in personality disturbances is the communicative interaction between patient and therapist.

I listened, and with each listen the game grew clearer.

—*Kipling*

The basis of any therapeutic situation is communication. An understanding of and feeling for what goes on when one person talks and another listens is the foundation stone for modern techniques in the practice of psychotherapy. Disturbances in communication when properly evaluated are considered as distortions either in perception (listening) or in transmission (speaking). Therefore most important as a corrective agent in personality disturbances is the communicative interaction between patient and therapist.

In the early days, the therapist functioned more as a mirror into which "the patient reflected his moods, thoughts and feelings." He made a definite effort to present himself in a totally objective manner, was preoccupied with the "why" of the situation and showed very little of himself as a human being. He communicated with his patient mainly through intellectual (verbal) pathways, using silence mainly as a vehicle for safety of control and, in the ultimate analysis, for obstructing many possibilities of human contact. Today, the therapist presents himself to and communicates with his patients on a more human basis, and should be skilled in enlarging on the more dynamic interrelatedness of "the what, how and why" to show interest in him, to see him as a suffering person, yet, at the same time, to attempt to reach into the depths of his personality and detect what is basically capable of growth and development.

The old judgment of Ben Johnson that "speech most shows the man" has taken on a vastly greater significance today than ever before. We are progressively recognizing and accepting the reality that speech and personality are fundamental aspects of one and the same process.

We may say with conviction that disturbances of speech, hearing, and communication cannot be studied or treated in isolation from the total personality. To approach these disorders purely symptomatically is illogical in the light of our present day neurological and psychological knowledge of human behavior.

Unconscious motivation and peripheral perception exert a degree of influence unknown until recent years and their na-

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ture and effects are best revealed through the way we talk and listen. In other words, the study of speech has become both internalized (in relation to thought and personality) and extended (to include the whole social structure and dynamic relationships). Hence, the abnormalities and pathologies of speech have demanded increasing attention partly because pathological conditions highlight normal factors through exaggeration. We also realize as never before that speech and hearing impediments are a detriment both to the personality and socially.

The goals in therapy have changed considerably during the last few decades. Today the emphasis is away from symptoms as prime expressions of underlying disturbances and toward the treatment of the total personality. The therapist's main objective might perhaps best be defined as finding suitable ways and means in improving the ability of the patient to communicate with himself and with others. Modern therapy stresses the treatment of the *total* personality, the *whole* man, and is directed toward a reorientation of the individual's relation to himself (intrapersonal network) as well as toward his disturbances in relation to others (interpersonal network). Its main emphasis is in understanding such disturbances of communication as are present, so that they can be corrected of their defective processes. It also tends to lead the individual out of his neurotic development by making available to him whatever resources are possible toward health. The more such a person is helped and directed toward liberating the forces of spontaneous growth, the more awareness, understanding, and sense of being will he have for himself. Hence the ideal in any worthwhile psychotherapeutic approach is the liberation and utilization of those energies and forces which may lead to effective communication and to self-realization.

To do successful therapy, the therapist himself has to be free of serious psychological problems. He must have a pleasant personality, and be able to sit quietly and listen to the problem of his patients. If he is restless, tense, disinterested, he will cause anxiety and doubt in his patient. A therapist's disturbed personality may tend to inhibit, block and retard movement in the therapeutic process. A strict intellectual approach, for instance, or illusions of superiority, may block the therapist's own self-growth and, consequently, hinder his working effectively with his patients. In our particular society today, many view the therapist as some sort of a god-like magician who is omniscient and capable of solving virtually any problem in the world. This belief is further supported by the mass media of television, movies, magazine articles and novels, where the therapist is usually depicted as a master-mind, shrouded with a mantle of mysterious wisdom, and placed in an ivory tower, where he can be seen, heard, but not touched.

In order to function at some level of competency and listen effectively to others, the therapist should have most or some of the following essential requirements:*

(1) he should have his own personal problems reasonably worked through or at least be so aware of

* Abstracted From The Author's Book —*The Art of Listening*, Charles C. Thomas, Publisher; Springfield, Illinois, 1959.

them that they will not interfere with his relating constructively with others;

(2) he must have an inherent belief in man's ability to change and grow toward self-realization, and a feeling for process in changing, a knowledge of the patient's fear of it, and the skill to handle defenses against it effectively;

(3) he must in every aspect of his personality himself be a human being, with a sympathy for those who struggle and suffer, and the wish to use every human attribute within himself toward expressing warmth, understanding, sincerity, and respect for the patient's own wishes and rights. Once the patient has discovered this feeling of mutuality and shared understanding with his therapist, he will have won half the battle;

(4) finally, he must to some degree be trained and well oriented in the dynamics of the neurosis. He must be practiced in the art of good listening and flexible enough to use as many therapeutic tools as will help toward effecting change; he must alert his hearing to all available healing forces in the patient and start mobilizing these constructive assets right at the very onset of the therapy. He should also be able and confident enough to handle most eventualities that may occur in the therapeutic situation and be himself integrated enough to "listen between the lines," so as to assimilate them without too destructive counterreactions. To this end, he must handle his own anxieties and hostilities without harming the patient's progress at the time.

Today the therapist presents himself and communicates with his patient on a more interpersonal basis. With his "third ear," he listens not only to the words his patient speaks but also to his (the therapist's) own "inner voice," and what emerges therefrom.

In an effective therapeutic process, the therapist must be keen and alert enough to look behind the patient's contrived screen of verbalizations, neither must he be taken in by the disguising maneuver of this talkativeness. It is essential for him to keep in mind that there is meaning in whatever his patient says, in his gestures, movements, tensions, pauses or silences, in his reflections, mannerisms, muscular reactions and a score of other communing factors. Listening to the words as words only may be most deceiving.

In the patient-therapist relationship, many first impressions and instinctive reactions are communicated either directly or non-directly through both verbal and non-verbal channels. Therefore the *therapist's most important tool is listening.* If his listening posts are perceptive enough, he will gain valuable information through the tone of a patient's voice, its many inflections and nuances, his choice of words, the rhythm and tempo of his speech and so on.

It is man's nature to try to help himself when in distress, failing which he seeks help from others. A person suffering from stuttering, functional deafness,

or some other psychosomatic ailment, generally comes to a therapist after he has exhausted his own and other resources of help. It is in this initial contact—which may be communicated to us by means of a telephone call, a letter, a direct referral—that the therapist is in the strategic position to get his first bird's-eye view, as it were, of the person who is seeking help.

An astute therapist early in his career will train himself to listen and observe with his fullest concentration and comprehension to what is presented both in the form of direct literal verbal content and in the many subterfuges and deep hidden emotions, repressed thoughts and symbolic expressions which go on beneath the more obvious levels of awareness.

As the therapeutic process dynamically activates itself and develops, and the patient reveals more openly to us his own psychopathology by both his verbal and non-verbal symbols, we obtain a more realistic perspective. We gather pertinent facts about him through our observations of him as he greets us, his manner of approach, his posture and physical proportions, his smile, his mood, his voice, the color of his eyes, the condition and grooming of his hair, the texture of his skin, the way he wears his clothes, etc. These and so many more communing manifestations can be utilized in helping us to understand the individual's personality make-up and the possible attitudes and ways in which he experiences living.

In treating the personality as a whole, it is essential that we gather as much pertinent information is possible regarding the patient himself, including both intrapsychic and interpersonal factors. In this sense, we may question him directly about his ways of life, his habits, his likes and dislikes, his preference for others, his capacities, abilities, potentialities; also about his dreams, fantasies, and his imagination. As he speaks, we can arrive at some of his feelings and reactions to ourselves as therapists; the manner in which he responds directly or attempts to avoid answers; the use of evasions or of fill-in words and, finally, the use of distractions, when anxious or conflicted. These and kindred points of observation are some of the unlimited resources we have at hand in the first initial interviews, which can be of importance in the therapeutic process, and in our investigation of the presenting level of tension.

The Therapeutic Process In Action

The first section of the therapeutic process, as has just been described, takes place primarily on the conscious or verbal level. The patient speaks to us, we gather pertinent data, we ask questions, and we tend to arrive at some concept regarding the patient's personality as a whole. The next step now consists in our absorbing the data, deciphering their hidden messages, and then activating our own resources for a constructive change with the patient. In this process of communicative exchange, the therapist attempts to remain more or less realistic (i. e., without preconceived judgment, prejudice, condemnation or adverse criticism) and makes conscious efforts to direct the therapeutic process toward producing in the patient a positive forward movement. In the final analysis, his main task is to help the individual grow in his struggle toward self-realization. This is

furthered by the therapeutic situation itself, by the therapist's feeling for the process of change, a knowledge of the patient's fear of it, and the skill to handle defenses against it effectively. In so doing, the therapist sets off a process of growth which takes place not only in the patient, but in the therapist as well.

It is said that the therapist, like his patient, often knows things without knowing that he knows them. It has been said that "the voice that speaks in him, speaks low, but he who listens with a third ear hears also what is expressed almost noiselessly, what is said *pianissimo*."[1]

For instance, there are times in therapy when the statements made by a patient are not consciously heard by the therapist, yet they are understood and interpreted. The therapist who allows information to flow passively through his ears without immediately examining every aspect and using his selective powers in the discrimination or scrutiny of what is before him, may very well lose the psychological moment for seizing elusive material. Here—and only here—as Reik says, "You must leap before you look; otherwise you will be looking at a void where a second before a valuable impression flew past."[2]

It is therefore essential that the therapist at all times be sensitive to listen, understand and recognize the secret meanings of the imperceptible and personal character of the language the patient uses. And so that he may receive, record, and decode the patient's impressions carefully and successfully, he must listen productively without criticism, prejudice or condemnation, and he must assimilate this information. Only when he has formed a total picture of his patient's verbal and non-verbal symbols in terms of his own impressions, will the therapist be able to arrive at an honest evaluation of the issues at hand.

There are times when, due to a novice therapist's eagerness for interpretations, he will want to move in compulsively and talk instead of listen. In compulsive people to whom talkativeness is a powerful tool, an attempt at being rational and arguing his problems out has been known to prove most devastating. With this kind of a person, the silent passive attitude in the beginning phases of treatment gives him something he has never before received—a serious and sympathetic interest in his irrational fears and symptoms.

In communicating with his patient, the therapist will best help him if he listens attentively to and, in turn, uses the language best understood by the patient. To use standard therapeutic jargon and cliches will too frequently confuse and misdirect the therapeutic process. The more experienced therapist is one who hears and communicates in words and who also sees, feels and senses the total participation of his patient in conflict.

In the final process of growth, *the last word must belong to the patient.* For the most part, he can and will change if and when he understands the reasons why he should do so. By helping the patient to be silent at times and listen to his own inner voice, the therapist directs him toward placing his conflicts and inner tensions into words, thereby removing those obstacles which interfered with emotional growth by permitting him to free his verbalizations from hindering contradictions and confusions. In good time this will effect a release of the patient's grip on

his symptomatic entanglements.

Successful communication is only possible when the participant's moods are attuned to each other on an equal level of feeling and affection. To facilitate this interaction the therapist must present himself as a good listener so that he can become truly understanding and wholly sincere with his patients.

What is basically essential in any therapist-patient relationship is a feeling of cooperation, flexibility, honesty and mutual growth. Both collaborators should have their listening posts attuned to such a degree of selectivity that they can participate in what for both of them is a creative atmosphere of give-and-take. Neither individual need necessarily feel himself the superior; neither should be viewed as more important than the other, nor should either participant have to deny or eliminate himself.

It is not easy to listen to someone else's ideas, thoughts and feelings effectively. The therapist must be constantly on the alert not to be narcotized by words and thus lose hold of the more basic and human issues. If his listening posts are not attuned properly, he will easily lose contact with his patient and become the victim of such an outpouring of words.

It takes patience and understanding at times to unearth information or repressed feelings from patients. And patience is a necessary attribute of the communication-minded therapist. Only too often, an individual is unwilling to talk freely because he gets the impression that the therapist is busy, or preoccupied, or even unsympathetic. You can't listen adequately to the heart of a person who's wearing a protective armour, unless you *feel* it and patiently help him to come out of his psychological shell.

One should also continually think along with the patient. The therapist should ask himself not only *what* his patient says, but *how* he is saying it and *why* he says what he does at this particular moment. This is an important and often neglected technique in listening. It requires conscious effort on the part of the therapist to listen passively on one hand and, on the other hand, to analyze actively—both actions occurring simultaneously.

As a final point, criticism and argumentation should be avoided. The patient has perhaps been deceiving himself over a long period of time and is not ready to see himself as objectively as the therapist does. Therefore, the patient should never be told that he is "neurotic" or that "nothing is wrong."

In the end process of therapy, the inner communicating systems of insight must function before any real or lasting change can ensue. Acceptance by ear or intellect of one's conflicts without bodily participation or true awareness will give but temporary relief and will produce in the long run merely a verbal expression of self. One must become wholly aware of his own problems before lasting and effective integration can take place.

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John Brown: The Two-Edged Sword of Abolition

John W. Monsma, Jr.

The actions of John Brown have been widely investigated and discussed, but no one has studied the speeches given by Brown in his anti-slavery campaign. This article discusses three speeches delivered by Brown, prior to Harper's Ferry, and the five speeches delivered during the trial in an attempt to describe an unknown aspect of a man whose deeds formed one of the major causes for the Civil War.

On Sunday afternoon, September 14, 1856, John Brown[1] mounted a dry-goods box in the main street of Lawrence, Kansas, pointed to clouds of smoke rising from the burning town of Franklin, and shouted, "It is said that there are twenty-five hundred Missourians down at Franklin, and that they will be here in two hours." Warning the populace that "This is probably the last opportunity you will have of seeing a fight, so that you had better do your best," he admonished them to ". . . remain perfectly silent and still. Wait until they get within twenty-five yards of you, get a good object, be sure to see the hind sight of your gun, then fire."[2]

In this speech, typical of those given after his arrival in Kansas, October 6, 1855, Brown quickly analyzed the situation, presented a few terse commands, and relied on pathetic proof to gain acceptance. Already well-known to the free-state settlers as a militant opponent of slavery, he wasted no time developing ethical or logical proof but, relying on his past reputation as a capable fighter, immediately proceeded to stimulate the inhabitants to action by utilizing the smoke as an emotional proof of their imminent danger, "they will be here in two hours. You can see for yourselves the smoke they are making by setting fire to the house in that town [Franklin]." Then, after a few succinct commands, he concluded with a second exhortation to "be sure of the hind sight of your gun," stating that if his many opponents had taken better aim "I would have been as full of holes as a riddle."[3]

Brown, however, did not limit his anti-slavery speaking to Kansas and, six days after the Lawrence speech, on September 20, journeyed to the East hoping to obtain financial aid for his work in Kansas. On February 18, 1857, he appeared before the Joint Committee on Federal Relations of the Massachusetts Legislature to urge adoption of a bill which would appropriate ten thousand dollars for the protection of the free-state settlers in Kansas. Brown, reading from a manuscript, attempted to show a need for the appropriation by describing the physical and fi-

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nancial hardships endured by the settlers. He related how the people were forced to neglect their crops in order to defend their homes, depicted incidents of atrocities by Missourians, emphasized the generally lawless conditions prevailing in the Territory, and concluded by asserting that Federal assistance was impossible.[4]

The speech had been carefully prepared; Brown hoped to impress upon the legislators the helpless situation of the Kansas settlers without financial assistance. Although the chairman introduced him as a man having the best blood of the Mayflower in his veins and a true descendant of soldiers of the Revolution,[5] Brown did not attempt to establish his character by expanding these remarks, but immediately began to read a speech which, devoid of ethical and logical proof, relied completely upon emotional proof to arouse the members to action. He commenced by describing the financial hardships of the settlers:

> From about the 20th of May, hundreds of men, like ourselves, lost their whole time, and entirely failed of securing any kind of crop whatever. I believe it safe to say that five hundred free-state men lost each one hundred-twenty days, what at one dollar and a half per day, would be—to say nothing of attendant losses—ninety thousand dollars.[6]

The main import of the speech, however, lay in the account of the activities of the Missourians and the resulting lawlessness of the area:

> I was present and saw the mangled and disfigured body of the murdered Hoyt . . . I saw the ruin of many freestate men's houses . . . together with grain in the stacks, burning and wasted . . . I know that for a considerable time the mails on different routes were entirely stopped . . . I once saw three mangled bodies, one alive, but with twenty bullet and buckshot holes in him . . . to be worked at by flies for some eighteen hours . . . I saw Mr. Packet . . . all bruised about the head, and with his throat partly cut, after he had been dragged sick from the house . . . and thrown over the bank of the Ottawa Creek for dead.[7]

Brown finished with the bold declaration that Federal help was impossible since the national government favored the opposition.

> It cost the U. S. more than half a million for a year past to harass poor free-state settlers in Kansas, and to violate all law, and all right, moral and constitutional, for the sole and only purpose, of forcing slavery upon that Territory. I challenge this whole nation to prove before God or mankind to contrary. Who paid this money to enslave the settlers of Kansas; and worry them? I say nothing in this estimate of the money wasted by Congress in the management of this horribly tyrannical, and damnable affair.[8]

Evidently these emotional outbursts had no effect because the Legislature failed to appropriate the funds, and Brown left Boston to visit other New England groups with his pleas. When speaking at Hartford, in his native state of Connecticut, he utilized the same manuscript, although he appended a more personal conclusion, imploring the listeners, as citizens of his home state, to support the cause in Kansas.

> Will the people of Connecticut, my native state, afford me some aid in this undertaking? Will the gentlemen and ladies of Hartford, where I make my first appeal in this state, set the example by an earnest effort?[9]

More successful at Hartford and other New England towns, Brown was able to return to Kansas armed with new financial and material resources. He arrived in Kansas on November 5, 1857, formulating plans for an active campaign against slavery. His determination to wage war, begun after the 1856 death of his son, Frederick Brown, and strengthened by events in Kan-

sas during 1858,[10] resulted in the doomed attack on Harper's Ferry, Virginia, at eight o'clock, Sunday evening, October 16, 1859. Despite a desperate battle, Brown and several of his men were captured and brought to Charlestown, Virginia, to await trial.

Fear prevailed among the citizens of Charlestown after the capture of John Brown. Reports of Negro uprisings constantly filtered into town and blossomed into stories of full-fledged battles. This atmosphere was not peculiar to Charlestown, but pervaded the entire South. Tension mounted as Tuesday, October 25, the day of the preliminary examination, drew closer.[11] At ten-thirty, Tuesday morning, eighty armed men conducted Brown and the other prisoners to the courthouse which "bristled with bayonets on all sides.[12] Brown, suffering from his wounds, had to be assisted into the courtroom and supported when he faced the Court.

Eight Justices of the Peace sat at the preliminary examination; Colonel Davenport served as Presiding Magistrate. When Davenport asked the prisoners if they had secured counsel, John Brown responded that, although Governor Wise had promised him a fair trial, "under no circumstance whatever shall I be able to have a fair trial" since he neither "had . . . counsel," nor had "been able to advise with any one;" knew "nothing about the feelings of [his] fellow prisoners;" was "utterly unable to attend [his] own defense;" and suffered from "insufficient" health and a memory that "don't serve me." He concluded by stating that certain "mitigating" circumstances should be investigated if the trial were to be fair; but if the trial were to be a farce, he preferred not to have one.[13]

Brown presented this first courtroom speech under adverse conditions. Although weak as a result of three sword cuts in his body, his eyes so swollen that he could hardly see, unable to stand without assistance, and evidently confused regarding his status, Brown delivered a speech which showed a brave resignation to his inevitable fate.

> Virginians, I did not ask for any quarter at the time I was taken. I did not ask to have my life spared . . . I have now little further to ask, other than that I may not be foolishly insulted as cowardly barbarians insult those who fall into their power.[14]

He spoke without preparation, relying on his lack of counsel and weakened physical condition to serve as emotional proof of his helplessness. Evidently he hoped that his statements would secure a more equitable trial from the biased Court.

The Court appointed Charles J. Faulkner and Lawson Botts counsel for the defendants, but when Faulkner declined to serve, Thomas Green replaced him. Eight witnesses testified to the capture of citizens of Harper's Ferry, the occupation of the armory, the battle, the casualties, and the self-avowed object of Brown and his men to forcefully free the slaves. The eight justices, after hearing the testimonies, remanded the prisoners to the Circuit Court which selected a Grand Jury to draft a formal indictment. The indictment, completed Wednesday noon, October 26, charged the prisoners with treason against the Commonwealth of Virginia, murder, and conspiring with Negroes to produce insurrection.[15]

Before the indictment was read to the prisoners, John Brown rose and asked for a delay in trial, stating that he did

"not intend to detain the Court," but based his request on Governor Wise's promise of a fair trial. Brown declared that he was in poor health, had "a severe wound in . . . one kidney" which enfeebled him very much, and that his hearing was "impaired and rendered indistinct in consequence of wounds" about the head. His condition was improving, however, and after "a very short delay" he would recover sufficiently for the trial.[16]

This speech, unlike the first courtroom speech, contained logical proof. Brown cited the promise of a fair trial and then inductively attempted to show, by giving illustrations of his health and impaired hearing, that a just trial was impossible at that time. Although logical proof predominated the entire body of the speech, he did conclude with a typically emotional appeal, pleading that he be allowed to "in some degree recover, and be able at least to listen to my trial, and hear what questions are asked of the citizens, and what their answers are," before the trial began.[17]

The Court refused the request for delay and decided to try Brown before the others, after Dr. Mason, the jail physician, declared that the wounds would not affect the defendant's mind and memory. The formal trial commenced on Thursday morning, October 27, with Brown lying on a cot. Before the jury was sworn, Mr. Botts declared that his client, contrary to many opinions, did not intend to plead insanity. Brown supported the statement of Botts with a brief speech indicating that any attempt to prove himself insane was contemptible, that he was conscious of no unsoundness, and that he completely rejected any attempt to prove insanity.[18]

Brown again used logical proof, but the logic was not consistent. He reasoned deductively, arguing that insane people "have but little ability to judge their own sanity," that if he were insane, he "would think he knew more than all the rest of the world;" he did not think so; and therefore, was sane.[19] Although the reasoning of the speech is hopelessly muddled and the major premise obviously invalid, it is significant that Brown attempted to use logical instead of emotional proof at a crucial point in his trial, thus indicating that he had at least an inkling of the importance and usefulness of non-pathetic proof.

The defense made another appeal for delay, but the Court refused, and the clerk finally swore in the jury. Andrew Hunter, the prosecutor, utilized the remainder of Thursday and most of Friday to present the case for the State of Virginia. The defense, bolstered by the addition of George Hoyt from Boston, began in the afternoon, basing its case on the nobility of Brown's character and his humanitarian attitude toward his prisoners at Harper's Ferry. When none of the defense witnesses appeared, the defendant, greatly agitated, rose from the cot and delivered his strongest speech of the trial.

Brown protested that despite all assurances he was not receiving a fair trial.

> May it please the Court, I discover that notwithstanding all the assurances I have received of a fair trial, nothing like a fair trial is to be given me . . . I gave the names . . . of the persons I wished called as witnesses . . . It appears that they have not been subpoenaed.

He requested a delay until Saturday when counsel would arrive upon whom he could depend to secure the required witnesses,

since he was "unable to attend to it," and there was no one to "do any errand" because all funds had been taken when he "was sacked and stabbed" and left without a dime.[20]

The vehement outburst was based entirely on emotional proof. Brown had no evidence for his accusations of judicial negligence but the failure of the requested witnesses to appear, and the sight of the list of their names laying tobacco-stained and trampled on the floor, infuriated the old fighter, and he spoke without adequate forethought.[21] The unexpected accusation stunned the Court. The court-assigned attorneys resigned; Hoyt took charge of the defense, and the Court adjourned.

Samuel Chilton of Washington and Henry Griswold of Ohio joined the defense on Saturday, October 29. Their questions consumed the entire day and concluded Monday noon. The jury retired about one-thirty and returned shortly after two o'clock with a verdict of guilty. Strangely enough, the crowd packed around the courthouse, which had been uttering "threats and imprecations," made no demonstration of any kind when they discovered the verdict.[22]

Judge Parker pronounced sentence on Wednesday afternoon, November 2. Brown had not expected to be sentenced until after the trials of his companions; when asked if he had any final statement, he was forced to deliver an impromptu speech. The condemned prisoner stated that he denied every charge except that he intended to free the slaves; he never "did intend murder, or treason, or the destruction of property, or to excite slaves to rebellion, or to make insurrection." He maintained that his penalty was unjust, since if he had "interfered in behalf of the rich, the powerful, the intelligent, the so-called great, or in behalf of any of their friends, either father, mother, brother, sister, wife or children, or any of that class" of people, his actions would have been considered appropriate and worthy of reward instead of punishment; he asserted the actions taken accorded with the rules of justice and the *Bible*.

> The Court acknowledges too, as I suppose, the validity of the law of God. I see a book kissed which teaches me that all things whatsoever I would that men should do to me, I should do even so to them. It teaches me further to remember them that are in bonds, as bound with them. I endeavored to act up to that instruction.

Brown calmly reiterated his innocence of the charges in the indictment, expressed satisfaction with his treatment during the trial, and concluded by claiming that he had never compelled anyone to join his forces, but all "joined me of his own accord, and the greater part at their own expense."[23,24]

This final speech lacked organization, possibly because Brown had not expected to speak at that time. He meandered from topic to topic, finally concluding with a weak attack upon those people who claimed he had forced them to join the attack on Harper's Ferry. For the first time ethical and emotional proof appeared in the same speech, although he again ignored logical proof. Ethical proof predominated in the first half of the speech where Brown defended his actions with the slaves on the basis of the rules of justice and scripture. He used pathetic proof to postulate the results of similar deeds performed for the upper classes and to refute the charge of compulsory membership by some of

his companions, not "to injure them, but as regretting their weakness."[25] As had become customary, emotional proof assumed the pre-eminent role.

John Brown remained in prison until December 2, the day set for execution. During this period Charlestown seethed with continual unrest. Reports of plans to rescue him became more frequent as the date for the hanging drew closer and, by December 2, panic ruled the town. Over three thousand troops were on constant alert; inspectors searched all railroad trains for suspicious passengers; and strangers were examined by the Justice of the Peace. Nervous soldiers even fired at a lonely cow clattering through the deserted streets one night. No trains, strangers, or editors of Northern abolitionist papers were allowed in Charlestown on December 2, and the three companies of soldiers, forming a hollow square around the gallows, permitted no civilian to approach it.[26] At eleven o'clock Brown quietly ascended the scaffold and was hanged; the executioner did not permit a farewell speech.

John Brown intended his speeches to be persuasive; he attempted to convince audiences of the validity of his beliefs and contentions. He emphasized emotional more than ethical or logical proof, undoubtedly finding the pathetic variety best suited to his type of speaking, except when he felt compelled to use ethical proof to justify his actions to the Court during the final speech. The distinct lack of logical proof may have been a result of a lack of formal education; the second and third courtroom speeches indicate an inability to use logical proof effectively.

Originality, directness, and plainness characterize Brown's speeches; he fashioned his material into a concise, meaningful form virtually devoid of good ornamentation. The lack of good ornamentation is especially noticeable; the seven speeches listed above contain only two figures of speech, although they do possess several loaded words. He used a metaphor at Lawrence when cautioning the defenders to shoot carefully: "If all the bullets which have ever been aimed at me had hit me, I would be as full of holes as a riddle;"[27] and an allusion to Moses in the speech at Hartford: "If my friends will hold up my hands while I live."[28] In the final courtroom speech he also employed onomatopoeia when describing the freeing of slaves from Missouri without "the snapping of a gun."[29] The following illustration, taken from the speech to the Massachusetts Legislature committee, typifies his usual method of description:

> I saw while it was standing, and afterwards saw the ruins of a most valuable house, the property of a highly civilized, intelligent, and exemplary Christian Indian which was burned to the ground by ruffians because its owner was suspected of favoring the free-state men.[30]

Although Brown ignored figures of speech and other stylistic devices, he frequently resorted to loaded words. Before the legislature committee he labeled the Missourians as "ruffians;"[31] at Hartford he made reference to "my native state" and aid given for "the cause of freedom;"[32] during the preliminary examination he pleaded not to be insulted like the victims of "cowardly barbarians;"[33] during the fourth courtroom speech he protested the absence of a "fair trial;"[34] and in the final speech he spoke of the results of his actions if

performed for the "rich, powerful, intelligent, and so-called great."[35]

Despite the presence of loaded words, contemporaries called attention to the absence of style in Brown's speeches. Henry Thoreau described him as a "man of . . . directness of speech," but "not in the least a rhetorician." Referring to an address given in New England, he likened the style to that of a "speech of Cromwell compared with those of an ordinary king."[36] Dr. Francis Wayland, a member of the Worchester audience, stated that Brown was like "many men who do it [but] are unable to tell about it. John Brown, a flame of fire in action, was dull in speech."[37] Ralph Waldo Emerson, however, another member of the Worchester audience, seemed favorably impressed by the plain composition of the speech.

> For himself, he is so transparent that all men see him through. He is a man to make friends . . . Everyone who has heard him speak has been impressed by his simple, artless goodness joined with sublime courage.[38]

Emerson's abolitionist bias, however, obviously influenced his favorable attitude toward the speech; the comments of the other men more accurately represent the common reaction.

The speeches are unified to the extent that they contain one central idea, but they lack good organization and coherence. Although Brown used topical development, he usually flitted from statement to statement without showing their relationship, and failed to make adequate transitions; even the prepared speech read to the Federal Relations Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature consisted of several illustrations strung together without benefit of a unifying outline. He could concentrate on one idea in a speech, but seemed unable to organize the discussion of it into an effective sequence.

Brown's delivery was diffident, especially in large gatherings; he felt more at home in a fight than in an assembly. He lacked fluency, possibly as a result of his uneasiness in front of audiences.[39] Listeners described his voice as deep and metallic,[40] clear,[41] and possessing a sharp nasal twang.[42] Special mention was made of his eyes which were characterized as "those of an eagle."[43] Thoreau, commenting on Brown's delivery, stated:

> I noticed that he did not overstate anything, but spoke within bounds. I remember particularly . . . how . . . in his speech here, he referred to what his family had suffered in Kansas, without ever giving the least vent to his pent-up fire. It was a volcano with an ordinary chimney-flue. Also, referring to the deeds of certain Border Ruffians, he said, rapidly paring away his speech . . . keeping a reserve of force and meaning, 'they had a perfect right to be hung.'[44]

According to his contemporaries, therefore, Brown lack the ability to effectively present his ideas; he knew little of the proper use of pause, rate, inflection, pitch, or the proper usage of the voice. At best, his delivery did not excel that of any average speaker inspired by a consuming passion.

Although only a passable speaker, John Brown wielded a two-edged sword for the cause of abolition. As a leader of armed bands he actively sought to destroy slavery; as a speaker he endeavored to kindle material and moral support for his work. Both North and South condemned his actions, but Brown continued his self-appointed work until death; and even death could not stay him. His memory became a rallying point for the radical elements on both sides; those in the North would

never rest until he was avenged, while those in the South agitated more strongly for greater protection of slavery. The resulting tension formed a major cause for the Civil War.

FOOTNOTES

1. John Brown was born in Torrington, Connecticut, May 9, 1800. He received a strict Calvinistic training in the home, but had little formal education. Throughout his life he was consumed by a desire to free the slaves. When his sons wrote him from Kansas, in 1854, that they were experiencing difficulties with the pro-slavery supporters, Brown left his farm in North Elba, New York, to aid them, and he soon became involved in an active war against the pro-slavery settlers.
2. Oswald G. Villard, *John Brown: A Biography Fifty Years After* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911), pp. 258-9. The copy of the speech included in this biography is a reproduction of the one which Richard J. Hinton said, in a June 9, 1900 letter to W. E. Connelley, "is accurate. I took it down in shorthand. I am a stenographer. I was by his side. It was published in one of my letters to the Boston *Traveller*."
3. *Ibid.*, p. 259.
4. James Redpath, *The Public Life of Capt. John Brown* (Boston: Thayer and Eldridge, 1860), pp. 177-84. Redpath was present during the speech and served as the reporter for the committee.
5. Villard, p. 277.
6. Redpath, p. 178.
7. *Ibid.*, pp. 178, 180.
8. Villard, p. 278 citing the original manuscript in the Kansas Historical Society.
9. Franklin B. Sanborn, *The Life and Letters of John Brown* (Boston: Roberts Brothers, 1885), p. 379.
10. Statement to a reporter by Brown while in prison. New York *Times*, October 20, 1859.
11. *Ibid.*, October 18-25, 1859.
12. *Ibid.*, October 26, 1859.
13. *Ibid.*
14. *Ibid.*
15. *Ibid.*, October 27, 1859.
16. *Ibid.*
17. *Ibid.*
18. *Ibid.*, October 28, 1859.
19. *Ibid.*
20. *Ibid.*, October 29, 1859.
21. Richard J. Hinton, "John Brown and His Men," *Frank Leslie's Popular Magazine*, XXVII (June, 1889), p. 703.
22. Indianapolis *Daily Journal*, November 3, 1859; also, Sanborn, p. 575.
23. Villard, p. 497.
24. Indianapolis *Daily Journal*, November 3, 1859.
25. *Ibid.*
26. New York *Times*, November 18, 19, 21, 23-30; December 1-3, 1859.
27. Villard, p. 259.
28. Sanborn, p. 379.
29. Indianapolis *Daily Journal*, November 3, 1859.
30. Redpath, pp. 179-80.
31. *Ibid.*, p. 181.
32. Sanborn, p. 332.
33. New York *Times*, October 26, 1859.
34. *Ibid.*, October 29, 1859.
35. Indianapolis *Daily Journal*, November 3, 1859.
36. Henry David Thoreau, *Anti-Slavery and Reform Papers* (London: Swan Sonnenschein and Co., 1890), pp. 55-6. This item was included in Thoreau's "Plea for Captain John Brown," which he wrote in 1857.
37. Sanborn, p. 381, citing a letter written to him by Dr. Francis Wayland of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
38. Ralph Waldo Emerson, "Miscellanies," *Complete Works* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1878), XI, p. 252. Emerson made these comments in a speech delivered in Tremont Hall, Boston, November 18, 1859, for the financial relief of Brown's family.
39. Sanborn, p. 627.
40. *Ibid.*
41. New York *Times*, December 3, 1859.
42. Story in the New York *Times*, October 11, 1859.
43. Sanborn, pp. 627-8; Villard, p. 497.
44. Thoreau, pp. 55-6.

Objective Evaluation of a Stuttering Therapy Program

William D. Trotter

The amount of improvement that takes place in stutterers' speech as a result of a two semester therapeutic program was objectively evaluated by means of tape recordings. The results indicate that the stutterers did not show improvement either in the fluency of their speech nor in the overall severity of their stuttering. Whatever the reasons for this lack of improvement it seems reasonable to propose that it is by using such objective criteria as tape recordings that scientifically minded speech pathologists will be able to accurately estimate the worthwhileness of a particular stuttering therapy program.

The purpose of this experiment was to objectively evaluate, by means of tape recordings, the amount of improvement that takes place in the speech of adult stutterers as a result of a two semester's therapeutic program in a university speech clinic. Seldom, if ever, do articles and books on stuttering therapy provide any tape recorded evaluations regarding the efficacy of the therapeutic programs that the authors recommend. The speech therapist and the stutterer are, therefore, unable to accurately estimate the effectiveness of such programs. Without such evaluations anyone may outline a treatment for stuttering and advocate it, even sincerely, as being an excellent one. It is hoped that the evaluational procedure described in this article will be of some value in influencing writers on stuttering therapy to include some account of the measurable speech improvement that is obtained from their recommended therapeutic procedures.

Procedure

Subjects. The subjects were 13 adult stutterers ranging in age from 16 to 26 years with a mean age of 20. Eleven were male and two female. All of the subjects were enrolled as patients in the university speech clinic. None of the stutterers had received therapy at the clinic prior to the beginning of this experiment although all had received speech therapy at some time in their life.

Therapy. Therapy was given through the media of (1) individual conferences with undergraduate speech clinicians and (2) group meetings with the author. Before working with the stutterers each clinician spent several hours in observing the author work with stutterers on an individual basis. Throughout the time the student clinicians worked with stutterers their work was closely supervised by the author. The group meetings and individual therapy sessions were held once a week. Each stutterer received approximately 30 hours of individual

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therapy and 30 hours of group therapy.

The stuttering was treated on the hypothesis that the stutterer has marked anxieties concerning the unpleasant experience of his stuttering and it is this anxiety which is the principal cause of his stuttering at the present time. Since the author hypothesizes (3) that without anxiety concerning the stuttering there would be no stuttering the therapy was directed at reducing the strength of this anxiety.

In a previous experiment (1) the author had 44 stutterers on completion of their therapy rate 64 therapeutic activities in terms of the degree to which each had helped them with their stuttering problem. The purpose of each of these 64 activities was to bring about a reduction in the stutterer's anxiety about his stuttering. An effort was made in the present study to concentrate therapy upon the 10 activities out of the 64 that the stutterers had shown by their ratings to be most helpful. These 10 activities were: (1) Discussing with their individual clinicians the reasons why they stuttered; (2) Giving public speech to unfamiliar audiences; (3) Discussing with their individual clinicians their feelings about their stuttering; (4) Learning how to talk about their stuttering problem; (5) Discussing with their individual clinicians their plans for working on their stuttering problem after they leave the clinic; (6) Try to decrease the number of speaking situations they avoid; (7) Leading a discussion in the stutterer's group meeting; (8) Group meetings when the chief therapist gave a lecture about some aspect of stuttering therapy; (9) Increasing the amount of stuttering they do on purpose in their more difficult speaking situations; (10) Trying to increase their speaking time in their more difficult speaking situations.

Tape Recordings. Recorded speech samples were obtained from the 13 stutterers at the beginning of their therapy period during the last week of September, 16 weeks later at the end of the 1st semester of the school year and again at the end of the 2nd semester in May, 33 weeks after the September recording. The procedure used in obtaining the speech samples was the one developed by Johnson and his co-workers (2). The recordings were made by a staff member whose only contact with the stutterers was at the time he took the speech samples. This staff member and the stutterer were alone in the room at the time of the recording. Following a warm-up interview, each stutterer was given these instructions:

> I want you to tell me about your future job (or present job, or past job or ideal job) for at least three minutes. Tell me why you picked this job, what type of work it is and anything else you can think of to tell me.

A time of one minute for preparation was given for this task if needed. When the stutterer indicated he was ready the experimenter said the following to him:

> I would like to have you talk at least three minutes to have enough speech to record, but you don't have to worry about the time; I want to hear all you have to say so take as much time as you like. Begin when I say 'okay.'

At the end of each recording session the stutterers were asked the following question:

> How does the severity of your stuttering in this situation

when you are telling about your 'job' compare with the average severity of your stuttering in other situations. Is it milder, the same, or more severe.

After being transcribed the recordings were then randomized and played back to the experimenter who followed a procedure developed at the University of Iowa (2) in counting the number of non-fluencies in each of the speech samples. This procedure consists essentially of identifying the instances of interjections, word repetitions, part word repetitions, phrase repetitions, revisions, incomplete phrases, broken words and prolonged words. The number of these non-fluencies per 100 spoken words was then computed for each of the 39 tape recordings. This method of evaluating the fluency of a stutterer permits the comparison of the stutterer's fluency with normative data (2) established on a group of non-stutterers.

The overall severity of the stuttering was rated in terms of a procedure developed by Lewis and Sherman (4). In this experiment the tapes were played back in random order and the experimenter made a rating every nine seconds in terms of a five point scale of stuttering severity ranging from *one* (least severe) to *five* (most severe). The reliability of the experimenter had been previously determined according to a procedure described by Sherman (6). The value of the reliability coefficient was .93.

Results

Non-fluencies. The number of non-fluencies per 100 words of each stutterer in each of the recording sessions is given in Table 1. It is interesting to note some patterns in the number of non-fluencies from session to session. Stutterers one and two exhibited approximately the same number of non-fluencies in each recording. Stutterers three, four and five had a decreasing number and stutterers six, seven and eight had an increasing number of non-fluencies with

Table 1. Number of non-fluencies per 100 words for each of the 13 stutterers in the three recording sessions.

Stutterer	*Recording Session* Sept.	Jan.	May
1	42.85	43.05	41.01
2	40.50	38.60	41.73
3	72.52	40.98	16.54
4	55.30	45.21	37.84
5	242.09	130.08	61.82
6	10.89	13.27	24.76
7	20.10	20.39	41.96
8	15.67	21.03	66.12
9	15.89	39.80	20.69
10	20.65	38.51	29.14
11	58.63	101.31	63.39
12	47.93	58.59	26.54
13	126.90	61.89	91.49
Mean	59.55	49.73	43.96

each successive recording. The non-fluencies of stutterers nine, ten, eleven and twelve increased in the second recording but decreased in the third while the non-fluencies of stutterer 13 decreased in the second session but increased in the third. Some of the variations from one recording session to the next are quite pronounced. Notable examples of such extreme variations are stutterers five and thirteen.

Six of the stutterers had more non-fluencies in their third recording session at the end of two semesters of therapy and seven had fewer non-fluencies. The average number of non-fluencies for the entire group of 13 shows a decrease from 59.55 in the first session to 49.73 in the second session to 43.96 in the third session. A treatment by subjects design (5) was used to test the differences among these means. The results of this analysis are given in Table 2. The value of F is less than 1 and is not significant at the five percent level of confidence.

The number of non-fluencies in the speech of 50 male and 50 female non-stuttering college students has been calculated by Johnson and his associates (2). The maximum number of non-fluencies recorded for these "normal" speakers were 20.1 per 100 words for the males and 9.1 per 100 words for the female. An examination of Table 1 shows that at the end of the second semester of therapy 12 of the 13 stutterers had more non-fluencies than the most non-fluent of the "normal" speakers.

Overall Severity. The group mean severity rating at the beginning of therapy was 4.02 at the end of the first semester, 3.74 at the end of the second semester and 3.50 at the end of the third semester. An analysis of variance using a treatment by subjects design (5) was used to test the difference among the means. The results of this analysis are given in Table 3. The value of F is 1.88 and is not significant at

Table 2. Analysis of variance for testing differences among the mean number of non-fluencies for the three recording sessions.

Source of Variation	*df*	*ss*	*ms*	*F*
Recordings (R)	2	1615.67	807.84	.083*
Stutterers (S)	12	43991.22		
R × S	24	23273.49	969.73	
Total	38	68880.38		

*F = ms_S ms_{RxS}, F (2 and 24df) 5 percent level of confidence, 3.40.

Table 3. Analysis of variance for testing differences among the mean severity ratings for the three recording sessions.

Source of Variation	*df*	*ss*	*ms*	*F*
Recordings (R)	2	1.77	.88	1.88*
Stutterers (S)	12	18.46		
R × S	24	11.26	.47	
Total	38	31.49		

*F = ms_S/ms_{RxS}, F (2 and 24df) 5 percent level of confidence, 3.40.

the five percent level of confidence.

Stutterers Estimate of Severity. In the recording situation at the beginning of therapy seven stutterers rated their speech as "same," four as "more severe" and two as "milder." In the second recording, eight rated their speech as "same," four as "more severe" and three as "milder." Thus for about half the stutterers any of the three recording sessions was regarded as a good example of their everyday severity whereas half thought it was not. Only five of the 13 stutterers gave the same rating for all three recording sessions.

Discussion and Conclusions

The results indicate that the stutterers as a group did not show improvement either in the fluency of their speech or in the overall severity of their stuttering. While it is not within the scope of this paper to exhaustively analyze the reasons for this lack of improvement it would seem appropriate to speculate briefly on some of the possibilities. One reason might be that the hypothesis upon which the therapy is based is not a tenable one, that is, bringing about a reduction in the stutterer's anxiety about his stuttering may not result in a corresponding reduction in severity. A second reason might be that the specific therapeutic procedures may not be appropriate for bringing about a reduction in the stutterer's anxiety about his problem. A third explanation is that the length of therapy may have been too short or the number of hours of scheduled therapy may have been insufficient. A fourth reason might be the inexperience of the stutterer's clinicians. A fifth reason could be the lack of cooperation on the part of the stutterers themselves.

Whatever the explanation for the lack of improvement it seems reasonable to state that it is only by tape recorded evaluations such as were described in this study that scientifically minded speech pathologists will be able to estimate with a reasonable degree of accuracy the worthwhileness of a particular stuttering therapy program.

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A Goodwill Visit to Six German Universities

WILLIAM SCHRIER

The speech profession of recent years has been urged to acquire knowledge concerning the nature and extent of the teaching of speech in other countries. The following article shares the author's observations concerning the teaching of speech in German universities.

A few short years ago, like most Americans, I presumed that the educational set-up and tradition of European universities made no provision for the teaching of speech. Hence it was an "eye-opener" to read the article "German Speech Education"[1] and to learn that: 1) the origin of speech training in Germany goes back to Erich Drach in 1917; 2) 16 of 21 leading universities offer courses in various fields of speech; and 3) the program of the National Speech Convention in Marburg in 1954 was "almost as varied as that of the 1958 convention of the S.A.A. in Chicago."[2] Thereupon, I applied for and received a Hope College Faculty Summer Study Grant for the purpose of visiting several German universities and conferring with leaders in speech education. My objectives were to observe the teaching of classes, particularly in Beginning Speech, to exchange ideas generally about aims and methods in speech education, and specifically to discuss the values — and admitted shortcomings — of extra-curricular activities in the hope that contests in debate, extemporaneous speaking and oratory might be incorporated into the German speech program in the foreseeable future.[3] This article seeks to share the highlights of this most delightful summer experience.

MUNICH

My first visit was at Ludwig Maximilians University in Munich, one of the largest German universities, with an enrollment of 20,000 students, of whom 5,000 are foreign. Armed with a "To Whom It May Concern" letter from Dr. Gladys Borchers and one from our own college president, Dr. Irwin J. Lubbers, I approached first the Auslandsamt (Office for Foreign Students) which immediately put me in touch with the proper personnel. This pattern was followed at each of the other universities and in every case, the reception accorded me by this office and by the speech person was very cooperative and cordial.

The six days spent at Munich were most pleasant. I felt as if I were one of the students,—visiting the library, studying catalogues of summer school offerings at other universities to plan my itinerary, eating at the student cafeteria, the University Mensa, where students at the noon meal are given a choice of two inexpensive menus, one for

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as low as 80 pfennigs (around 19¢) which probably the guide in a city tour of Munich had in mind when he referred to the Mensa as "serving the worst food in Germany."

I attended Vorlesungen (lectures) and some Übungen (drill exercises) in classes taught by Dr. Irmgard Weithase. I sensed that I was in the presence of an excellent teacher, highly regarded by her colleagues in the other universities visited later. Having "brushed up" on my prior knowledge of German before sailing, and having purposely booked passage on a German ship, the "Hanseatic," to engage in German conversation with fellow-passengers, I experienced no difficulty in getting the "drift" of the lectures of Dr. Weithase, delivered as they were with impeccable enunciation.

A common practice of respect to professors in German universities is for students to drum on their desks as the teacher enters and leaves the classroom. That observation strengthened my resolve to keep my talks fresh and up-to-date and never to yield to the temptation of "getting by" with old notes accumulated since beginning teaching in 1924, in order to deserve such a tribute if it were the practice in this country.

One class I particularly enjoyed was in the Oral Interpretation of Lyric Poetry. Two selections worked on the days I was there were "Frühling 1946" by Elizabeth Langgässer and "Deutsche Zeit 1947" by Wilhelmn Lehman, both depicting the desolate and desperate mood of the German people following World War II. It was interesting to observe the astuteness of Dr. Weithase in soliciting class comments before making her own observations and summation, her judicious balancing of favorable and unfavorable comment. One young lady read with rather lack-lustre facial expression and with a notable lack of vocal variety. She was kept at the lectern for perhaps the better part of an entire period. Upon being asked in an interview afterwards how she could get around equally to 14 others in a class which met but once a week, Dr. Weithase explained that this young lady was one with special problems who required delicate treatment, and thereupon launched into a fine explanation of the intricate nature of criticism, pointing out that its ultimate objective remained always that of improvement rather than merely the negative aspect of indicating what had been done wrong. It satisfied my query and made me think that this teacher could have been a worthy contributor to the symposium on criticism which appeared recently in another publication[4].

FREIBURG

After Munich, I set out for Freiburg, a lovely town nestled at the foot of the Black Forest, with a smaller university population of 9,000. I had looked forward to this visit with eager anticipation in that I had been predisposed favorably to Dr. Walter Kuhlmann as "a wonderful man."[5] He proved indeed to be that, amiable and pleasant, holding the attention and interest of a large class of 100 in Phonetics with no apparent difficulty. The class consisted of a lecture with occasional reference to blackboard charts; the teacher encouraged interruptions for questions, sometimes darted questions at individual students and also called for an occasional "zusammen," i.e., having the entire class repeat a sound in uni-

son in order to fix it in the memory. Following this large class was a smaller one where students were called upon to read expressively from a text of previously practiced selections. This procedure reminded me of the practice in vogue at the University of Michigan in the early twenties where students were asked to recite expressively previously assigned memorized excerpts from selections such as Robert Burdette's "The Rise and Fall of the Mustache" or Russell Conwell's "Acres of Diamonds."

Dr. Kuhlmann is very much interested in the physiological aspects of speech and proudly showed me scattered issues of *Speech Monographs* which he obviously cherished, sent to him by a friend in the United States. Since I had a number of my own personal copies available and had ready access to our library copies, I promised to send him mine. Subsequently, through the cooperation of Martin Bryan of the University of Cincinnati, Chairman of the SAA Committee for Assistance to Foreign Universities and of the United States Information Service which paid the postage, this has been done and their receipt gratefully acknowledged by Dr. Kuhlmann.

FRANKFURT

My third stop was at the Johann Wolfgang Goethe University located at Frankfurt. It has the oldest, biggest and best equipped Speech Department of those I visited. At present, it is under the active and able leadership of Dr. Walter Wittsack, immediate past president of the German Speech Association and currently serving as its vice-president. I audited a variety of classes; in one in General Speech, a moving picture was shown showing what is involved in communication. Since Dr. Wittsack spoke no English, my talk with him was through an interpreter, Miss Elfrieda Jackisch of the Auslandsamt.

HEIDELBERG

Off to old Heidelberg for four days! This town I fell in love with from the first moment I arrived. In retrospect I've been trying to account for it. Perhaps it was a pleasant expectation from its reputation as the locale of "The Student Prince"; perhaps it was the favorable first impression of the new railroad station, perhaps the way the town was nestled in the valley between two heights, perhaps the quaint atmosphere of a trolley line running the length of its narrow main street, perhaps the fact that here my wife and daughter came up from Augsburg to join me for three days. Or perhaps it may have been because here for the first time I found a class, the like of which was not among many summer school offerings, one in "Frei Rede für Anfangers," freely translated Extemporaneous Speaking for Beginners, so that here I had an opportunity to observe student speaking.

Wherever I went, the teacher in charge would briefly introduce me, extend greetings, explain my mission, followed by a nod or brief oral response in German. But in this class there was an opportunity for class participation on my part. After a series of speeches from class members, some with and some without notes. Frau Erna Korwan, the teacher, asked for my comments and suggestions. A few student speakers had been notably deficient in the elemental matter of eye-contact. So there popped into my mind the illus-

tration I invariably use in "getting over" this idea back home. I suppose it's just one of those clichés one picks up and thereafter uses throughout his teaching career.

In brief, I tell the true story of my college chum at the University of Michigan. One evening late he dropped in on me all excitedly and announced that on a canoe trip on the Huron River, he had "popped the question" to his childhood sweetheart, been accepted, and he was now engaged! (Incidentally, I later was best man at the wedding.) "Well," I usually say—and here I pick out a boy to avoid embarrassing a girl—"suppose you were my sweetheart, and we were out on a canoe on a moonlit night, while murmuring 'I love you, honey! Will you marry me?' —I was looking the other way! Surely at a time like this, remembering that 'the eyes are the windows of the soul,' you'd be eagerly looking into her eyes, hoping for a favorable response!" I may never know whether it was the intrinsic absurd humor of the situation, or the fractured Deutsch in which I told the incident but the class roared and enjoyed it immensely. In our interview afterward, Frau Korwan commented that she liked the example and said she planned to use this story in subsequent years to teach eye-contact. Teaching as I do at a church-related college, I am well aware of the Scriptural injunction against thinking more highly of himself than he ought; still, I must confess to a momentary fleeting satisfaction at the thought that at Heidelberg, the oldest university on German soil established in 1383, there may now be used in teaching, an idea first suggested by me.

At Heidelberg, there were also courses in the sounds of the German language, smaller sections usually, where übungen (drills) were held and where sometimes the entire class in unison and sometimes individuals alone would recite short sentences containing stipulated sounds, accompanied by hand gestures, all the while looking into little individual hand mirrors to fix and set the formation of each sound.

MARBURG

The Philipps University at Marburg, with an enrollment of 6,000, was next on my itinerary. In charge here is Dr. Christian Winckler with wide and varied interests in voice, interpretation, psychology and drama, author of a number of texts in the speech field.[6] A number of personal reasons kept me from spending as much time at Marburg as I would like to have done. I had attended the Passion Play at Oberammergau the preceding day and had arrived tired after an overnight sleeper trip from Garmisch via Munich and Frankfurt. Then I found that the various university departments were not centrally located but scattered throughout the town. Time was of the essence because the last week of summer session had arrived, and I had another stop to make. I found there are three Wincklers on the university faculties, and only on the third try did I succeed in locating the Institut für Sprechkunde at the rear of a museum.

Dr. Winckler appears to be a bundle of energy. I do not recall if all the classes materialized but the summer school catalog listed him as teaching five separate classes. This particular morning he was busy teaching three consecutive classes, two of which I arrived in time to attend and in one of which I remember that,

with the use of slides, he explained the physiological processes involved in phonation. In my short interview with him, he expressed himself as being overworked, 180-200 students being specifically involved in the Institut, and himself volunteered that he would welcome a teacher with American training if it were possible to secure one through the Fulbright program.[7]

BONN

My last and perhaps most profitable stay was at Bonn University, enrollment 10,000. For here I not only made the acquaintance of but even feel I became a friend of a most remarkably dedicated man, Dr. Paul Tack, present President of the German Speech Association. In this capacity, he explained the set-up of this organization which seeks, with a considerable degree of success, to become recognized as an accrediting agency for all who seek to become teachers of speech, whether in or out of a university. The examination required is an all-day affair and in five parts: 1/a written exam; 2/an oral exam; 3/personal interview; 4/reading of a poem; and 5/observation of the applicant in teaching.

Dr. Tack has been to the United States and absorbed something of the speech scene in America. He is a very hard-working individual, completely dedicated to the cause of speech education and to the welfare of his students. He teaches many classes, long hours; he goes at such a fast pace it was a chore to keep up with him. One afternoon I audited two of his classes, followed him to hear some speeches in a special class at the Catholic School of Theology of the University, then attended by invitation as his guest a meeting of European essay contest winners for the equivalent of our high school seniors on the hopeful subject, considering their own many problems "Responsibility of Europe for Africa." He was back on the job in the classroom Saturday morning at 7:30 a.m.

Dr. Tack's devotion to his students put me in mind of a memorable speech I had once heard given at one of our speech conventions by a late great of our profession, James Albert Winans. He was making the point that some of us, in our zeal for research, might be neglecting the importance of class-room teaching, and urging that we not take the attitude of some teacher of whom he had heard who, seeing a class about to enter, remarked: "Here come these damn students again!"[8]

At present some 300-350 are taking work in the Lektorat für Sprechkunde at Bonn University of whom 200 are planning to become teachers of German and about one or two a semester, teachers of speech. Dr. Tack showed me with great pride some of the books and magazines, stored at Bonn as a circulating library, materials mentioned as having been presented by Dr. Borchers.[9]

INTERVIEWS

At each place visited, besides auditing classes, I had an interview with the teacher. I am not an experienced journalistic reporter and my methods may have lacked professional finesse and techniques. But, beginning with the classes I had just observed, it was my practice from a mental outline to inquire into matters relating particularly to the conduct of courses in elementary speech. I refer to such questions as whether or not fear was a

big problem with beginning speakers and if so, how the problem was handled, how criticism was conducted, what stress was laid upon outlining and the use of notes, whether or not writing out the speech was encouraged. These things and many more, short of my sitting with pencil poised to record responses, we would discuss casually and informally. I found considerable difference of opinion among them on these matters, just as I am sure there would be among any representative group of American speech teachers. In some cases, responses would become quite positive as for example when Dr. Winckler volubly opposed the practice of interrupting a student speaker, upon the ground that this not only wrecked the student's train of thought, but also that thereafter emphasis would be focused upon the form rather than upon the idea. From his remarks, I gathered that the so-called "workout speech" would receive short shrift from him.

TWO DIFFERENCES

Two areas in the content and conduct of courses struck me as receiving slightly larger emphasis in Germany than here—that of impromptu speaking and voice drill exercises. While I did not have occasion to sit in on a course in "Freies Erzählen," inquiry about curricula brought up frequent reference to such a course which, both from its wording and description, I can only translate as "Free Story-Telling" or in other words, impromptu speaking. For example, one might be asked to read a story three or four times and then tell about it; or to tell offhand about an accident he had seen; or to tell about a trip he had taken;[10] or to speak without prior preparation on: "How I'd Take a Vacation on 500 Marks." This of course isn't too entirely different from anything we do in this country. For, from the kindergarten teacher with her opening period of encouraging free conversation to the oral stand-up recitation of yesterday's case-book assignments in the University of Colorado Law School when I was a student there, we do have similar assignments. But my thought is that occasional practice in impromptu speaking here is more often a unit in other courses rather than a complete course by itself. And as for the other matter of voice drill, I personally have always had misgivings about the worth of public drills in voice and, while I know there is difference of opinion here on their value, I doubt that the practice of precision drills is as widespread now as once it was. Regarding both of these differences, I could be wrong on both counts.

OTHER IMPRESSIONS

The teachers I met were a hard-working lot. Some of the figures of actual teaching hours specifically spent in the classroom per week border on the fantastic, 31-35 in the case of Dr. Tack of Bonn and 34 in the case of Frau Korwan of Heidelberg and the Institut at Mannheim. It should be noted, however, in comparing our teaching load with theirs, that many of their students require only a certificate of attendance at the end of the course so that the teachers are not burdened with record-keeping nor harassed by that perennial grading problem of deciding between a "C" and a "B." All acknowledge that they are overworked and concede that they have too many students in

toto and too many per class for best results.

Perhaps the outstanding and most lasting impression I came away with was the warmth and cordiality of my reception, the feeling that I had mixed and mingled with kindred spirits from another nation, persons with interests and problems similar to ours, and all of them anxious to hear and know more of American speech education and to have their speech curricula expanded. This is merely a way of saying that from actual personal observation, I can confirm what others have previously said and experienced.[11] After my return to the United States, I ran onto an article in the October 1960 *Forensic* which gives some indication that students too, as well as teachers, are eager for more speech education.[12]

THE FUTURE

My "over-all" observation is that speech education in Germany—so far as is concerned the amount of it, the number of teaching personnel involved in it, the academic recognition accorded to it—is still in its infancy and perhaps where ours was 25 or 30 years ago.[13] With different traditions and background, there is no assurance that its further development will be similar to ours, nor is there any particular reason why it should be. It is already different in the case of extra-curricular activities. In our case, considering that debate began with the Yale-Harvard debate in 1892 and oratory at about the time of the formation of the Interstate Oratorical Association in 1874, extra-curricular activities appear to have developed concurrently with the establishment of Speech Departments and curricular offerings. There is no present sign of that happening in Germany today. Some of the ramifications of the extra-curricular problem in Germany I expect to report on in a later article.[14]

I do think that one phase of our support and encouragement of German speech education deserves careful thought. Fred L. Casmir, himself a native German and in a good position to observe, says that the strongest leadership for the improvement of speech in Germany today is coming from those who have had contact with American speech education. He further contends that Germany's universities have a responsibility in developing democratic ideals in this still nascent democracy, and believes that this function can in part be met by greater familiarity with the principles of oral communication and the processes of group thinking.[15]

By and large, I felt I had a very profitable summer. If ever any of you have the opportunity to go to Europe and specifically to Germany, I would recommend that, when you become surfeited from seeing castles and cathedrals, try classes. You will be welcomed and feel richly rewarded.

FOOTNOTES

1. Dr. Gladys Borchers, *Central States Speech Journal*, X No. 3 (Spring 1959), 8-15.
2. Ibid., 10.
3. Space limitations require that a report on this latter phase of my visit be delayed for a later article.
4. "A Symposium on Evaluation. Criticism, and Grading" *Speech Teacher*, IX No. 1 (January 1960), 1-23.
5. Personal letter from Dr. William A. Behl, Brooklyn College, February 15, 1960.
6. *Lautreines Deutsch, Lesen als Sprachunterricht, Gesprochene Dichtung*, and, with Erika Essen, *Deutzche Sprechkunde under Sprecherziehung.*

7. Note the third recommendation of Robert T. Oliver "Speech Training Around the World, II. A Cooperative Enterprise" *Speech Teacher*, V No. 3 (September 1956), 185.
8. "Of Conventions," *QJS*, XXII No. 2 (April 1936), p. 301.
9. "Shop Talk," *QJS*, XLV No. 3 (October 1959), 362.
10. As I grow older and become more deeply impressed with the almost sacred nature of the speech act, speaking grows more difficult rather than easier. While I would be able to give an impromptu talk about my wonderful summer—the trip on the Rhine, to the Jungfrau, to my birthplace in The Netherlands, to the Olympics in Rome—which might be passable in the judgment of others, I personally would not be satisfied except with considerable advance notice and thorough and complete preparation.
11. "People are very friendly and very eager to understand speech education in our country and to help us understand German speech education." Personal letter from Dr. Gladys Borchers, University of Wisconsin, May 5, 1960.

    "I am firmly convinced that the most valuable result of my visits with professors and students was the intensification of the good rapport which had been established by other professors who have visited West Germany. All of the professors were interested in what we were doing in speech in the United States and most of them were flattered to know that some one from the United States was interested in the speech curricula in German universities." William A. Behl, "Speech in the Universities of West Germany," *Speech Teacher*, VII No. 1 (January 1958), 30.

    "Speech training abroad indicates that teachers of speech in the United States have many earnest and worthy colleagues laboring at similar educational aims in many nations." Robert T. Oliver, Ibid., V No. 3 (September 1956), 184.
12. "Throughout Europe, this feeling [that 'training in speech for most students is insufficient and more is definitely needed'] is prevalent and was voiced to me many times; each time with the hope that something would be done about it in the near future." Fred Bergsten, "Forensics in Europe; A Lost Art," *Forensic*, Series 46, No. 1 (October 1960), 4.
13. Statements such as these are not quite in accord with the facts: "Speech training in German universities, of which there are only 11 for 20,000 students, is almost nil . . . On the secondary school level, no training is available." Bergsten, Ibid., 4.
14. See Footnote 3.
15. Fred L. Casmir, "Speech in German Universities," *Today's Speech*, VIII, No. 1 (February 1960), 17-19.

Analysis and Issues—A Study of Doctrine

ROBERT P. NEWMAN

This article contends that the rhetorical theory of commonplaces, stasis, or stock issues is misleading and useless, and argues that rhetoric will be on sounder grounds by giving up the attempt to formulate a pre-existing structure into which the issues of deliberative propositions can be sorted.

When we approach great questions of public concern, stated as propositions of policy by academic debaters, but introduced as bills or resolutions in legislatures, we are confronted by a complicated, confusing, often fuzzy and amorphous body of fact, feeling, value judgments, prejudices, institutional dispositions, claims and counter-claims. Little confronts us that is tidy and neat; human affairs are notoriously messy.

Accordingly, deliberative speakers who attempt to deal with such questions find that one of their most important tasks is analysis, or breaking a proposition down into its component parts. Howell states that the task of analysis is to "separate a complex idea into parts where the natural joints are."[1] Classically, this task was assigned to that branch of rhetoric known as 'invention.' Bacon was no doubt right in claiming that the term 'invention' is a misnomer;[2] but the function referred to by the term is obviously highly important. We may not 'invent' the natural joints of a controversial question, but we do need to find them.

Basically, analysis involves two items: a process or method of procedure which will help us see where a proposition can be subdivided; and a product, the units of the argument, normally called issues.[3] The method of procedure (analysis) will of course influence the kind of product (issues) we obtain; this is to say that the answers we get will depend upon the questions we ask. Analysis is the asking of questions, and issues are the units of discussion or deliberation that result.

The present paper is an effort to inspect some widely-accepted theories concerning analysis and issues; it will contend that these theories are (1) based on an illegitimate mechanical model, and hence are unrealistic for topics in the social disciplines; (2) confusing, in that they equate issues with something else; and (3) destructive of the integrity of the subject-matters with which deliberative speakers deal. Legitimate analytical procedures will be held to be less precise and more modest than many theories nurtured by rhetorical tradition.

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I.

In the ancient world, at the time rhetoric became a subject for investigation, the leading thinkers were generally awed by the certainty and precision of mathematics and geometry. Aristotle developed his formal logic on a mathematical basis, and it is not surprising that there were attempts to devise a precise scheme of rhetorical analysis. There arose, accordingly, a system of analysis involving 'stases' or 'stock issues,' which could be applied to any forensic or deliberative topic in much the same way that the geometrical rules of triangulation could be applied to any surveying problem. The origin and growth of this system is concisely described by Nadeau, who lists the stock issues as four in number:

It is just or lawful?
It is expedient, useful or necessary?
Is it possible?
It is honorable or pleasant?[4]

When a deliberative speaker has learned these four questions, the process of analysis is simple:

> A proposed action is measured against these standard topics or stock issues, and specific issues do or do not result, depending on whether or not a position taken on any topic is opposed.

After canvassing the writings of 24 rhetoricians ranging in time from Aristotle to Farnaby, Nadeau tabulates the extent of agreement on these stock issues, concluding with a panegyric which would lead one to believe that the final word had been said:

> The writers listed in the table are *representative choices* covering a span of twenty centuries from the fourth century B.C. to the seventeenth century A.D. In all that time, no writers of consequence differed in any significant degree with those listed in their choices of stock issues for deliberative speaking; since the Renasissance, further, there have been no important departures from, or additions to, the stock issues used by, and enumerated by the ancients. Our present-day deliberative speakers, legislators, and debaters are following a tradition that is at least 2500 years old.[5]

The whole tone of Nadeau's discussion supports the belief that the process of analysis is cut and dried. According to him, there are a fixed number of units of possible arguments in deliberative speaking, happily everyone agrees as to what they are, and analysis simply requires that one fit the raw materials of argument into the proper categories. The specific question for discussion and the discipline from which it is drawn have no effect upon the procedure of analysis or the kinds of issues which are possible; the speaker need only classify his evidence so that it will indicate that the proposition is just or unjust, expedient or inexpedient, possible or impossible, honorable or dishonorable.

Similarly, in discussing the doctrine of "Positions" (issues) as developed by Cicero and others, Howell observes:

> Just as the student of biology, having studied the variety of organisms in nature, and having come to perceive the general classes and particular species of organic structure, knows what to say about a particular specimen when he has related it to its type and kind, so the speaker, equipped as it were with a comprehensive knowledge of the natural history of controversy, finds what to say by being able to perceive in the structure of a given dispute the persistent pattern of one of the few general types.[6]

And just as natural scientists in the Newtonian era attempted to find 'laws' in their observations of the physical universe, Howell speaks of establishing

"fixed forms and laws"[7] in rhetorical theory, and observes that Aristotle and Cicero believed "that both dialectic and rhetoric must provide a machinery for the discovery of logical proof."[8] 'Logical proof,' in this context, is a strictly mechanical process, and its units, according to the classical writers, were predetermined; i.e., analysis is a process equally as rigorous as the proof itself.

It is not surprising that in modern times, with the growth of a stereotyped pattern for deliberative speaking, the academic debate, the doctrine of stock issues would be invoked to supply practitioners of the art with a ready-made scheme of analysis. One of the first adaptations of the idea of stock issues to the policy propositions used by academic debaters was made by Warren Choate Shaw; and none exceeds him in the claims made for the efficacy of such an analytic system. Writing in the *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking* for 1916, he announced the discovery of a set of stock issues (fourteen in number) which

> . . . eliminates the necessity of struggling through the same elementary logical processes with each new question in laying out a case. This fundamental work is done once for all, and when the hypothetical issues become familiar, not only does every question drop mechanically into its proper mould, but all matter in any way associated with the proposition seeks that ramification of the mould in which it fits.[9]

His long list of stock issues consisted of questions inquiring whether evils existed, whether they were really evils, whether the proposed plan was really different from the status quo, whether the proposed plan had evils, whether these were really evils, whether the negative counter plan was different, had evils, and whether these were really evils, and finally, comparing everybody's evils.

So fool-proof did Shaw believe his scheme to be that he quoted students who had used it as saying, "Why, by this method, we can develop cases with the same accuracy that is possible in a report of a physics experiment." And "When these phases have been filled in, there is nothing more to say."[10] According to Shaw, asking these questions made analysis of policy propositions scientific, and any goal short of this was unworthy.[11]

A direct descendant of Shaw's doctrine, and the most recondite development of all, is the scheme of analysis offered by Hultzén. After inspecting the issues developed by ancient rhetoricians (as set forth by Dieter[12] and Nadeau) and concluding that they are appropriate only for propositions of fact, he develops a scheme for the "total analysis" of deliberative questions which " . . . must apply to all deliberative situations, at least within the culture where it will operate at all;" and contends that "it must be the only system, not one of several systems of analysis . . ."[13]

Hultzén then establishes four "frames," or super-issues: "Malum or Ill, Sanibilitas or Reformability, Remedium or Remedy, and Pretium or Cost." For those of us who understand neither Latin nor multi-syllabic Latin derivatives, he translates into what he calls "freshman monosyllabic:" ill, blame, cure, cost.[14] Stated in terms of questions, his issues are:

(1) Is there this ill in the present state of affairs?

(2) Is this ill curable?

(3) Will the proposed remedy cure this ill?

(4) Will the cure cost too much?

Each of these four "frames" can be further broken down by considering (1) conjecture as to its existence, (2) definition of what it is that exists, and (3) any qualifications which might be made; when this is done, the system is as cumbrous as that propounded by Shaw.

And even though few current argumentation texts tout the stock issues as highly as the authors cited above, academic debaters have steadily become mesmerized by stripped down and simplified stock issue formulations. Whether the categories are "Need-plan-benefits,"[15] or "Need - practicability - desirability,"[16] or any one of a dozen other variants, if you listen to a scholastic or collegiate debate, you will be confronted with stock issues. The warnings of some writers that stock issues are useful only in beginning research, or in suggesting areas of investigation, have gone entirely unheeded. *In practice, the units or argument with which academic debaters deal are stock issues.*

The theory of analysis presented above is what might be termed a "field-invariant" theory;[17] it assumes that the methods of analysis, and the end-products or issues, are invariant from field to field, from one discipline to another. The analytical procedures and the units of argument are held to be the same, whether the speaker be SAC General Thomas Power, making his case for an airborne alert; John Kenneth Galbraith, making his case for cyclically-graduated unemployment compensation; or George F. Kennan, making his case for disengagement of our forces from Germany. The procedures these men are to use should be identical, and the issues they emerge with will be stock issues, common to all policy propositions. Whether one is dealing in history, politics, economics, sociology, if it is a proposition of policy, there is a set of stock issues which will serve for "total analysis."

II.

The fundamental difficulty with this stock issues doctrine is that it invokes a mechanical model for analysis which is entirely unwarranted. The phraseology which betrays this assumption of mechanization has already been given: Nadeau regards the classical doctrine as one of "measuring" a proposed action against "stock issues;" Howell speaks in biological terms, of "organic structure" and "specimens;" Hultzén calls his scheme "the only system" of analysis; and Shaw compares analysis with an experiment in physics.

The attempt to reduce analysis to a mechanical formula is plausible only if the raw materials with which deliberative speakers must deal are suitable for such treatment; that is, if they are analogous to the raw materials with which the natural sciences deal. Let us briefly inspect this analogy. Our present rhetorical concern is but a subdivision of the problem of the utility of mathematical systems for the social disciplines. The conventional doctrine of stock issues is not, in all respects, a mathematical system; but it shares many of the characteristics of such a system, and its advocates frequently give the impression that they value it to the extent that it approaches mathematical certainty.

The raw material of deliberation, which is shaped into issues,

is historial data. We are accustomed to think of supporting material in terms such as 'statistics,' 'testimony,' 'specific instances'; and use of these labels often prevents us from appreciating this vital characteristic of propositions of policy, and of the disciplines from which they are drawn: the data they present are all based upon past events.

This should come as no surprise to those who have reflected on the nature of the 'social sciences.' Writing on "Rhetoric and Historiography," Helen F. North notes this precise point: in Greece and Rome, "the advanced rhetorical exercises in proof and refutation depended on historical incidents for their subject matter."[18] And though Aristotle, fascinated by the precision and certainty of geometry, produces in his logical works many examples derived from the natural sciences, he, too, is thrown back on history for most of his rhetorical illustrations.

The tense of many deliberative contentions is misleading. An assertion in the present, and hence in the same *form* as a statement in a natural science, might be this: "The Communist Government is in full control of the mainland of China." Note, here, that only the *statement* is contemporary; the data on which it is based are historical. Or try a future prediction: "Castro-style revolutions will take place in five Latin American countries within a decade." The referent is future, but the data on which the statement is based are again historical; they are observations of Cuban and Latin American social and political phenomena and similar *past* events.

The normal classification of propositions into the conventional subject-matter areas such as politics, international relations, labor relations, economics, etc., should not obscure the nature of the basic raw materials of deliberation as historical. As such, they deal with events which are non-repeatable. Karl Popper states in *The Poverty of Historicism*, "history is characterized by its interest in actual, singular, or specific events, rather than in laws or generalizations."[19] For all historical data, exact location in time is appropriate. Natural science, on the other hand, is concerned primarily with propositions—and hence data—which are timeless. It would be silly to put dates as subscripts to such typical scientific statements as "Water is at its maximum density at 4 degrees Centigrade;" "Freely falling bodies accelerate at 32.2 feet/sec/sec." "Light travels in a straight line."

But is history essentially different from the natural sciences? Can we draw a line between the methodology appropriate to the historical disciplines and that appropriate to the natural sciences? Morris R. Cohen claims that we cannot:

> It has beeen urged, notably by the followers of Windelband and Rickert, that while natural science deals with abstract aspects of phenomena that can be indefinitely repeated, social science deals with events which are unique. It is rather easy to refute this assertion by pointing to geology as both a historic and natural science.[20]

Such a cavalier dismissal of what is so firmly grounded in common sense is not very convincing. Pointing to geology as *both* a natural science and a historical discipline proves nothing. One branch of geology, paleontology, is obviously historical and hence quite different from chemistry; while other branches,

such as crystallography, deal with timeless relationships and have little in common with history. The existence of a field of study which incorporates two kinds of data does not prove that there is no significant difference between the two kinds.

We need, here, to make a distinction between two separate items: attitude and methodology. The *attitude* of modern science, which holds all hypotheses as tentative and subject to further verification, is one which is indeed appropriate to all fields of inquiry, including history and rhetoric; but the *laboratory methods* of the natural sciences, appropriate just because they are natural sciences, cannot be similarly transplanted.

In his excellent account of the meanings of science, Wendell Johnson notes that in the highly-refined laboratory techniques of such fields as chemistry and physics, there are several factors which cannot be transplanted bodily to all other disciplines:

> (a) precision apparatus and techniques of measurement, (b) a high degree of control over the conditions under which the observations and measurements are made (experimental controls), and (3) quantitative or mathematical reporting and analyzing of the data obtained.[21]

Additionally, the events studied by the historical disciplines are completely non-repeatable and largely non-predictable. $Revolution_1$ simply does not equal $Revolution_2$ in the same way that one molecule of H_2SO_4 equals another. The hypothetico-deductive method of science presupposes repeatability and predictability; but the American Civil War which was fought in the 1860's simply will not be repeated. As to the attempts of Toynbee and others to predict the grand sweep of history, too much of that history will be determined by the growth of human knowledge for any accurate prediction to hold — and that growth itself cannot be predicted.[22]

Our colleagues in the social disciplines certainly make no use of stock issue formulae in selecting the units of argument with which they deal. A political scientist, for instance, when asked "What are the issues in the 19.... Presidential campaign?" will respond with a set of questions such as "Will electing X assure peace?" "Will electing X secure defense against attack?" "Will electing X promote full employment?" "Will electing X secure federal support for education?" The man-in-the-street would respond similarly.

An historian, arguing that we should extend diplomatic recognition to the Communist Government of China, will break his case down into the following issues: "Is recognition compatible with our commitments to Chiang Kai-Shek?" "Would recognition enable us to correlate our Far Eastern policy with that of our Allies?" "Would recognition help us gain stature with the prominent Asian neutrals such as India?" "Would recognition cause Communist China to behave more reasonably?" The answer to the general question of policy can be given only after consideration of specific, real issues such as these.

Similarly, an economist dealing with a major question of policy will seek to find the vital sub-questions constituting the units of his argument. John Kenneth Galbraith, in one of the brilliant essays found in *The Affluent Society*,[23] makes a case

for a cyclically-graduated unemployment compensation policy (abbreviated CGC) by discussing the following issues: "Will CGC support the level of consumer spending?" "Will CGC support our commitment to consumer debt?" "Will CGC eliminate the dependence of security on production?" "Will CGC ease the inflationary pressure of full employment?"

In none of these typical analyses have we run across anything resembling the stock issues of rhetorical theory. Despite the devotion of many economists and some political scientists to experimental design in obtaining data, when it comes to argument, they tolerate no mechanical models. Nadeau's claims that "Our present day deliberative speakers, legislators, and debaters are following a tradition that is at least 2500 years old," is true of only one group: the academic debaters.

There are, then, substantial differences between the natural sciences and the historical disciplines, which call into question any attempt to transfer from science to history 'scientific' methodologies. One such attempt is represented by the stock issues formula, along with the doctrine of analysis or invention behind it. This attempt, however, must fail, because it assumes that the historical data of rhetoric are analogous to the timeless data of science, hence subject to manipulation by formula. The data are not the same, and the methods cannot be the same.

III.

Despite the inappropriateness of a mechanical scheme of analysis to deliberative speaking, and the total disregard of stock issues by all but the academic debaters, the feeling persists that stock issues have *some* relevance to the enterprise of analysis. Let us look at a typical formulation of the stock issues as used by debaters to see what legitimate aspects of analysis they encompass.

Is there a need for a change?
Will the affirmative plan remedy this need?

Is the affirmative plan practicable?

Is the affirmative plan desirable?

Superficially, the first question listed above seems to be identical with the first stage in John Dewey's problem-solving procedure.[24] And, if this question is interpreted *as* a stage of analysis, it is unobjectionable. It is when this question is hypostatized into a substantive issue that it becomes misleading. Certainly we must begin with problems in need of solution when we construct an argumentative case; but almost never is there just *one* problem. There are usually several problems, each of them a separate issue in itself; and when we claim "There is a need for a change" we have done nothing more than complain about the status quo. We have not analyzed anything, we have not classified anything, we have not specified what the problems are, we have not delineated any real issues or units of argument.

Consider the proposition, Resolved: That the United States should adopt a policy of free trade. The important affirmative issues are "Will free trade decrease the cost of goods desired by the American consumer?" "Will free trade enable other countries to buy more American products?" "Will free trade eliminate the dollar gap, retaliatory tariffs, resentment, etc.?" Obviously, on each of these issues, the affirmative must go through two stages of analysis:

they must show both that there is a problem, and that their plan will solve the problem. To use the jargon, they must show that there is a "need for a change," and that their plan "will remedy this need," on each of several substantive issues.[25] But the stages of analysis are not the issues.

Musgrave, in a slashing attach on stock issues,[26] points out the organizational confusion which results from equating stages of analysis with issues. He observes, correctly, that debaters often fail to tie in the "need" with the way in which their plan would "solve the need." They will list a whole string of problems which they group together as "the need," claiming that this is their first "issue," and devoting the entire first affirmative speech to this "issue." By the time the second affirmative gets around to showing how the "plan meets the need," half of the needs are forgotten, and the causal relationship between (say) the "need" to reduce the dollar gap, and the way in which free trade will solve this need, is obscure or entirely neglected.

The third stock issue, "Is the affirmative plan practicable?" is simply a cover under which specific disadvantages of a proposal may be raised by opponents. But the stock issue does not name, describe, or in any way elucidate the real issues which are the units of arguments. It is merely another way of stating the general question which any sensible debater will ask: is there anything wrong with this proposal? Asking this question should not be considered equivalent to having discovered a real issue, such as "Free trade will lead to dangerous unemployment." The stock issue formula neither does the work of analysis, nor is it the end-product of analysis. It simply generalizes another stage which the debater must go through.

"Is the affirmative plan desirable?", the last of this list, is a totally specious construct. It seems to be a "catch-all," under which items not covered by the other three questions might be raised. Its use does not flatter the intelligence of the arguer. If it is used as a label under which minor matters, not worthy of major issue status, are brought up, one wonders whether they should be brought up at all. *Prima facie,* however, "Is this plan desirable?" is simply another way of asking "Should this plan be adopted?", a question to which the entire affirmative case is addressed. If the affirmative have come to grips with real issues, and shown that there are significant problems in the status quo which their plan would solve, and have defeated any possible disadvantages raised by the negative, they have *ipso facto* established desirability.

The stock issues of the academic debater, then, are not real issues at all: they are not units of argument, but at best stages of analysis through which a deliberative speaker must go in developing and establishing his case. It is to be expected, therefore, that a respectable group of writers on argumentation make no sweeping claims such as those made by Shaw and Hultzén. Crocker,[27] Ewbank and Auer,[28] and Braden and Brandenburg[29] confine the stock-issue questions to preliminary analysis, regarding them properly as merely a device to begin the search for real issues; and Shurter[30] does not mention them at all.

Immel and Whipple object strenuously to stock issues:

> Many people simply divide up the question into three parts, to fit the three debaters, and proceed to argue it on the division of "necessity, practicability, and justice," or on some other easy and meaningless division. Now we do not buy a house because it is "necessary, practicable, and just." We do not do anything else on such a silly and meaningless basis as this. We try to find the real basis for our action by asking searching questions. The ready-made analysis is the lazy debater's way of going about it. It is a substitute for thinking, and a very poor one at that.[31]

Insofar as some theorists do actually regard the work of analysis as done when they recite a list of stock issues, the stricture of Immel and Whipple is justified. The questions asked as stock issues cannot pretend to be something they are not, namely, the end-product of analysis.

IV.

The final shortcoming of the stock issues theory is that it deemphasizes the integrity of the subject-matter from which the speaker's materials are drawn, thus encouraging the charge of sophistry with which rhetoric is still faced.

As interpreted by many of its protagonists, the stock issues doctrine exhibits a high degree of "field-invariance," claiming to have sure-fire issues into which any topic can be crammed. To the extent that the writers cited at the beginning of this discussion regard the stock issues as a finished framework which can be superimposed on any deliberative subject, rather than regarding them as stages of analysis, the charge of sophistry is justified. There is no facile formula for analysis of the great problems of society, and our colleagues in the social disciplines think ill of any attempt to provide one. One learns the issues on free trade by studying tariffs; the issues grow out of the subject-matter; they cannot be imposed upon it.

Consider again the language with which Shaw touts his doctrine; the use of stock issues "eliminates the necessity of struggling through the same elementary logical processes with each new question. . . . This fundamental work is done *once for all* . . ." (italics mine). This is indeed analysis purchased cheaply, a "quickie" procedure for dissecting thorny and intractable problems. But the real issues, the building-blocks of argument, are discovered only by digging hard into the subject under discussion; and the more skilled the rhetorician, the less willing he will be to rest content with issues provided by a formula.

The contention that the fundamental work of analysis is done, once for all, when one has a foolproof list of stock issues, will not bear scrutiny. Simply asking "Is free trade expedient?" does not provide a clue as to where, in the plethora of materials in economic journals, one will find the *reasons* why free trade might be expected to be beneficial or harmful. Assuming that there is a "frame" labelled "Malum" does not tell us what goes in that frame; as Hultzén himself notes, there may be "several items" to be dealt with here.[32] The vital question is, "How do we find these items?" And to this, the stock issues doctrine answers with a thundering silence. There is no easy way out, there is no short cut. Mastery of the relevant sources cannot be provided nor eliminated by a rhetorical formula.

As Howell points out in his essay "Renaissance Rhetoric and Modern Rhetoric: A Study in Change," ". . . the modern

speaker, whether in the Law court or on the political platform, speaks less from the old method of armchair analysis than from the method of research into the realities of his case. . . . Today we consider such realities the building blocks of any serious and important speech, the grounds of any dependable induction; and our speakers, despite their frequent addiction to the trash and nonsense that clutter oratory no less than literature, adhere at their best to the principle that realities cannot be mastered except as speakers participate in the disciplines of the scholar and the scientist."[33] The "arm-chair analysis" which Howell derogates is the dependence upon stock issues. The "realities" of which he speaks are field-dependent facts.

Part of the attractiveness of discussion, as opposed to debate and persuasion, is that it does not seek to bend its data into preconceived moulds. The "divisions" of a discussion are clearly recognized as at best procedural, and no one harbors the delusion that analysis has been accomplished when the steps to be followed in discussing a controversial topic are set forth. The terminology of "problem-solving" has resisted hypostatization, as the classical theory of invention has not; and it is therefor academically much more respectable. The discussant knows that the Deweyan procedure does not impose a structure on the *matter* being considered; the stock issues adherent believes that for deliberative speaking he has a ready-made structural division of his subject. The discussant knows that his theoretical approach has not done any work for him, that his work is yet to be done; the stock issues adherent believes that his theory provides his basic analysis, and all he needs to do is to sort data into the ready-made slots.

Analysis of deliberative propositions must be field-dependent. No set of general questions can do the job, and the assertion that stock issues adequately provide the units of discussion de-emphasizes the uniqueness and integrity of the specific field.

V.

What, then, can be offered by way of constructive advice for analysis of deliberative propositions? Obviously first and foremost, the foundation of research and investigation must be laid. The speaker must discover the relevant literature, master it, and have a solid knowledge of fact and opinion. In the process of investigation he will become familiar with what writers in the field believe to be the major issues; but he must still perform his own analysis, and select his own issues.

Probably the first systematic procedure after basic investigation should be analysis of the standards of value involved in the topic. Here we are concerned with questions of expediency, law, honor, and similar ethical terms; for this a fruitful approach is the kind of analysis described by McBurney and Hance in their chapter on "The Steps in Reflective Thinking:"

> There are four steps in the method of dealing with values reflectively: (1) discover what values are operating; (2) discover how these values are weighted by members of the group; (3) seek to establish an integration of values; (4) probe into deeper and more fundamental values.[34]

The above program is offered in the Deweyan tradition, and

there is no pretense that using it will obviate the hard work of analysis; it is simply a guide. Following the analysis of values, a deliberative speaker will follow a path which will depend on whether he is an uncommitted investigator, free to choose any course of action which may appeal to him, or whether he is an advocate, obliged to uphold an assigned position. If uncommitted, he will do well to continue the program of problem-solving as outlined by Dewey.

For the advocate, the deliberative speaker of the legislative assembly or the academic debate, the next step may take a somewhat different course. The sound, if unpretentious, advice of Gardiner gets to the heart of the matter:

> To find the main issues—which are really the critical ones on which your audience will make up their minds—is a matter largely of native sagacity and penetration; but thorough knowledge of your whole subject is essential if you are to strike unerringly to the heart of the subject and pick out these pivotal points. A simple and very practical device for getting at the main issues is to put down on paper the chief points which might be made on the two sides. Then with these before you, you can soon, by stating them and rearranging them, simmer down your case into arguable form.[35]

In this procedure, there will be irrelevancies to be discarded, consolidations to be made, adaptations necessary to conform with an overall position, and in some contexts, admitted matter to be waived.

Clearly, these steps are in no inviolable order. Continuing analysis is necessary as more data comes to light. New issues may arise with changing conditions. An analysis thought to be complete may need revision to accommodate a new value-judgment put forward by an opponent. *No formal scheme can encompass the organic growth of an argument;* in Gardiner's phrase, there is no substitute in rhetoric for "native sagacity and penetration." This may seem a slim venue compared with the elaborate structures of some of the stock issue theorists; but its modesty is in keeping with the difficulty and complexity of the subjects of deliberative speaking, and with the common sense and insight with which scholars have been probing the human condition since the first philosophical question was asked.

VI.

In summary, we began by defining analysis as the task of finding the "natural joints" of an argument, and by defining issues as the units or building blocks revealed by the natural joints. We then inspected various forms of stock issue doctrine as put forward by classical theories of invention and modern writers on argumentation. In their extreme forms, these were found to have the following weaknesses:

(1) They cast analysis into a mechanical, rigid mould, inappropriate for the social disciplines and the historical data with which deliberative speaking deals.

(2) They confuse issues with something else. The modern formulations, as found in argumentation texts, represent stages of analysis, at best a procedural device, rather than an end product.

(3) They de-emphasize the integrity of the subject-matter from which deliberative propositions are drawn, and substitute a ready-made formula for the hard task of finding the natural joints.

This is a sophistic procedure, ill-suited to functional rhetoric as a hand-maiden of the social disciplines.

Legitimate analytical procedures, on the other hand, were found to be relatively modest and commonsensical. Dewey's problem-solving approach, the systematic consideration of standards of value, a straightforward listing and rearranging of major points of controversy, all following thorough study of the subject, represent as much of sound advice as is available.

Until the stock issues, conceived as structural units, disappear from rhetorical theory and academic argument, we are saddled with an artificial and unwholesome burden.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Wilbur S. Howell, *The Rhetoric of Alcuin & Charlemagne* (Princeton, 1941), 33.

[2] *The Works of Francis Bacon*—New Edition (London, 1825) II, 183.

[3] 'Issue' is a modern term. Howell (op. cit., 39) prefers 'position'; Otto A. L. Dieter prefers 'stasis,' and wrote an article with that title (*Speech Monographs*, XVII (1950), 369; and Lee Hultzen uses 'status' in his contribution to *The Rhetorical Idiom*, Ed. Donald C. Bryant (Ithaca, 1958), 97.

[4] Ray Nadeau, "Hermogenes on 'Stock Issues' in Deliberative Speaking," *Speech Monographs*, XXV (March, 1958), 62.

[5] Nadeau, 62.

[6] Howell, 35.

[7] *Ibid.*, 45.

[8] *Ibid.*, 58.

[9] Warren Choate Shaw, "Systematic Analysis of Debating Problems," *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, II (October, 1916), 349.

[10] *Ibid.*, 351.

[11] *Ibid.*, 345.

[12] Dieter, *op. cit.;* see note 3 above.

[13] Hultzen, *op. cit.*, 109.

[14] *Ibid.*, 109-110.

[15] Austin J. Freeley, *Argumentation and Debate.* (San Francisco: 1961), 167.

[16] A. Craig Baird, *Argumentation, Discussion, and Debate.* (New York: 1950), 65.

[17] I am adapting this phrase from Stephen E. Toulmin, *The Uses of Argument* (Cambridge, 1958). His use of the phrase relates to logic, rather than to analytic structure, but the phrase serves the same function here as in his book.

[18] *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XLII (October, 1956), 236.

[19] (Boston, 1957), 143.

[20] Morris R. Cohen, "The Social Sciences and the Natural Sciences," found in W. F. Ogburn and Alexander Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences and Their Interrelations* (Boston, 1927), 437.

[21] Wendell Johnson, *People in Quandaries* (New York, 1946), 36.

[22] Popper, *op cit., passim.*

[23] (Boston, 1958), Chapter XXI.

[24] John Dewey, *How We Think* (Boston, 1910), Ch. 6.

[25] It is recognized that time limitations may force an affirmative to concentrate on one issue; but stating that issue as "There is a need for a change" does not illuminate the nature of the problem, nor endear debates to those not privy to the jargon.

[26] George M. Musgrave, *Competitive Debate* (New York, 1944), 45.

[27] Lionel Crocker, *Argumentation and Debate* (New York, 1944), 45.

[28] Henry Lee Ewbank and J. Jeffery Auer, *Discussion and Debate* (New York, 1955), 98.

[29] Waldo W. Braden and Earnest Brandenburg, *Oral Decision-Making* (New York, 1955), 409.

[30] Edwin D. Shurter, *Effective Debating* (New York, 1925), Chapter II.

[31] Ray K. Immel and Ruth H. Whipple, *Debating for High Schools* (Boston, 1929), 29.

[32] Hultzen, *op. cit.*, 117.

[33] W. S. Howell, "Renaissance Rhetoric and Modern Rhetoric: A Study in Change," in *The Rhetorical Idiom*, Ed. Donald C. Bryant (Ithaca, 1958), 63-64.

[34] James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *Discussion in Human Affairs* (New York, 1950), 78.

[35] J. H. Gardiner, *The Making of Arguments* (Boston, 1912), 73.

RESEARCH REPORTS

Frank E. X. Dance
University of Kansas

Debate

1. Would you be President, Senator, Congressman, Governor? Then, young man or woman, go out for the debate team in your high school or college. That sums up the evidence and advice thus far revealed in a survey that *Freedom & Union* is conducting among prominent leaders in political and other fields to learn which ones were student debaters when in high school or college, whether they found this experience valuable in their careers, how it helped them most, what they advise student debaters not to do and avoid, and what they find is most persuasive in debate. . . .

In addition to the two candidates for President in 1960, 87 Governors, Senators, and Congressmen participated in this survey. Of this total, 55 had experience in debate in high school and/or college; five as coaches, the others as students only. Of these 55, almost half — 26 — agreed with Mr. Nixon that the experience "greatly" helped them in their career, while 23 go further and testify that it helped them "invaluably." In other words, 49 of 55 — a remarkably high proportion (89 per cent) — recommended it strongly to boys and girls who have political ambitions. The minority all found this experience helped them "moderately," except one, who conceded it had helped him "a little."

John Halladay, "Nixon, Kennedy, 55 Statesmen Advise Student Debaters," *Freedom and Union* (October, 1960), pp. 4-5.

2. The high value which those who have won distinction attach to gaining as students training in debate comes out all the more strongly as the number of responses to *Freedom & Union's* survey on this subject grows. "This year, our second report, covers a total of 160 returns, and adds to the Senators, Congressmen and Governors, whose views we reported in our October issue, those of 27 other leaders, including Cabinet Members, Supreme Court Justices, famous playwrights, and a variety of other leaders.

"Of these 160 an impressive 100 had debating experience in school, and of the remaining 60 nearly half — 26 to be exact — now regret that they didn't go out for the debate team when in school. Not a single one of the 100 former student debaters finds the time he spent debating was wasted, only one rates this experience as helping him later merely "a little," and all but nine others say it helped their careers more than "moderately."

"The other ninety per cent testify that it helped them either "greatly" (46) — as Vice President Nixon assessed it in our October report as regards his own career — or "invaluably" (44), as Senators Cooper, Cotton, Church and Humphrey rated it in that report. Senator Kennedy, who was not a debater in school, found such training "most valuable for politics" and other careers in his response which appeared in full, like Vice President Nixon's in our previous report. . . ."

What should debaters rely on most? What is the most persuasive single factor in debating? The statesmen gave first place to "belief in one's case, sincerity," which got 35 votes. (This figure and those that follow involve a certain amount of overlapping, since several checked more than one answer, indicating their difficulty in selecting a *single* most persuasive factor.) "Well reasoned argument" placed second with 29 votes. These two led the field by far with the other six factors listed trailing thus: "clarity" third with only 18 votes. "Fairness," "good delivery," and "well-expressed case" neck and neck with 12, "simplicity" fourth with only 9 votes, and "good-natured presentation" straggling last with 3.

Debaters — young and old — may want to ponder the fact that, while "sincerity" ranked first as the most persuasive factor, "well reasoned argument" which came close behind had impressive indirect support, for, among the worst faults in debating listed by the same statesmen "inadequate research" and "ill-organized presentation" led the list—and certainly they do not contribute to a well reasoned argument. . . .

John Halladay, "100 of 160 Leaders Began Careers as Student Debaters," *Freedom and Union* (November, 1960), pp. 5-7.

Note: Reprints of the above articles are available free to anyone sending a self-addressed stamped envelope to the publisher at 2200 Ontario Road, N.W., Washington 9, D. C.

Communication Techniques

3. In a study designed to make a controlled comparison of the effectiveness of four media—the lecture, bulletin, 16 mm. film, and television in presenting research findings to adult groups, 783 adults participated, comprising five groups from 78 to 355 in each group, the groups widely separated geographically.

The lecture medium appeared to be the most effective of the four used. On the basis of 't' scores run following analysis of variance between media, the lecture superiority was significant at the .05 level over other media. The bulletin medium scored higher than film or television, but not significantly so. The higher the academic grade level attainment the greater the number of correct answers scored regardless of media used.

"Research and Investigation in Adult Education," *Adult Education*, XI, 4 (Summer 1961), pp. 212-213.

Note: Those desiring further information should write to Dr. Burton W. Kreitlow, Room 215 Education Building, University of Wisconsin, Madison 6, Wisconsin, or William P. Edwards, Department of Education, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

Group Processes

4. A group of 72 undergraduate students at Stanford University were used as subjects during four days of experimentation. The subjects were randomly divided into two groups and administered nine problems in the same order (two problems on each of the first three days and three problems on the fourth day). The subjects in one group spent the first half of the working time on each problem in groups of three and the second half working alone. The remaining subjects followed the reverse of this procedure.

It was concluded that within the conditions of this study there is no significant difference in the number of ideas produced

whether group or individual work comes first. However, more ideas were produced by a given number of individuals working alone than by the same individuals working in a group, regardless whether individual work came before or after group work.

Donald W. Taylor and Clifford H. Block, "Should Group or Individual Work Come First on Problems Requiring Creative Thinking When Equal Time is Devoted to Each?" Report prepared under Project NR 150-166, contract Nonr 609 (20) between Yale University and the Office of Naval Research, *Compendium No. 2 of Research on Creative Imagination*, Creative Education Foundation, New York, p. 9.

Note: Those desiring further information should write to *Creative Education Foundation, Inc.*, 1614 Rand Building, Buffalo 3, N. Y.

News and Notes

JOHN TOLCH
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

STATE ASSOCIATION NEWS

ILLINOIS

Officers elected Nov., 1960
Mr. Ralph Micken, *President*
Southern Illinois University
Department of Speech
Carbondale, Illinois
Mr. Martin Cobin, *Sec.-Treas.*
University of Illinois
Department of Speech
Urbana, Illinois
Mr. Ralph Lane, *Editor*
Speech News
Glenbrook High School
Northbrook, Illinois

The Association has just finished writing a curriculum guide for secondary school speech. It will be printed this fall. Dr. Bill Buys, SIU, is chairman of the project.

In an effort to increase membership in the State Association, the state has been divided into seven districts with a chairman in each district to organize the membership drive. The goal is 300 new members in 1961.

IOWA

Miss Thelma Whitford, *President*
East High School
Des Moines, Iowa

INDIANA

Officers elected May, 1961
Mr. Edward Strother, *President*
Ball State Teachers College
Muncie, Indiana
Mr. Owen Stallard, *Sec.-Treas.*
Purdue University
Lafayette, Indiana

The Indiana State Speech Association met on May 6 at the Indiana University Medical Center, Indianapolis for its annual Spring conference. Dr. Herold T. Ross, Chairman of the Speech Department, DePauw University was the keynote speaker. He used for his subject, "The Past, a Prelude to the Future." Dr. Ross emphasized that as oral communication becomes more and more vital to our daily existence, the speech teacher becomes more important to education. Separate sessions for university and secondary teachers were held in the morning. Interest groups in the areas of interpretation and public address met in the afternoon.

The committee working on the publication of a course of study for speech is nearing completion of its work. The ISSA earlier approved courses of study in basic speech, public speaking, broadcasting, and theatre. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction and his curriculum committee approved the work and its publication. Dr. Gladys Rohrig of Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute has served as chairman of the publications committee. Ball State Teachers College will sponsor the publishing project and copies will be mailed to every Indiana high school this fall.

KANSAS

Officers elected Apr., 1961
Mr. Richard Hildreth, *President*
Kansas State Teachers College
Emporia, Kansas

Mr. Al Higgins, *Sec.-Treas.*
Emporia High School
Emporia, Kansas
Mr. Wil Linkugel, *Editor*
Kansas Speech Journal
University of Kansas
Lawrence, Kansas

The annual spring convention of the Kansas Speech Association was held at Kansas State College, Pittsburg, on April 22.

Sectional meetings were held for speech and forensics, theatre, radio, TV, and film. These meetings were held in the morning, and in the afternoon, each interest group reported back to the general assembly on its activities and what plans it had made for next year.

A special feature of the convention was the organization of a student interest group of the Kansas Speech Association. Eleven students were present, mostly from K.S.T.C. of Emporia. An attempt will be made to expand this interest group next year. Each college speech department is to appoint a responsible student speech major who will serve on the planning board of the student interest group for next year's convention.

The convention voted to hold next year's meeting at Kansas State University at Manhattan.

The Selection Committee of the association announced that Kenneth E. Mosier of Fort Scott High School and Junior College and Tom Kelley of Hutchinson Junior College were the recipients of this year's "Outstanding Teacher Award." Mr. Mosier was chosen for his work on the high school level and Mr. Kelley for his outstanding work in speech on the college level.

Members of the state association felt especially proud that such a large number of high school teachers attended the SAA meeting in St. Louis last December. Plans are under way for another large delegation at New York in December of '61.

MICHIGAN

Officers elected May, 1961
Mr. Fred Alexander, *President*
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan
Mr. Grant Wessel, *Sec.-Treas.*
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan
Mr. Murray Hewgill, *Editor*
MSA Bulletin
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

Mr. Bill Sheehan, News Editor of station WJR, Detroit, delivered the MSA spring luncheon address. His topic was "A Newscaster Covers Today's World Leaders." He related to the group some of his experiences in covering Eisenhower's tour of 1960 and his impressions of troubled areas in the world.

Sectional meetings for the spring MSA meeting included the following areas and programs: "Airborne Television, What It Is, How It Works"—Edgar Willis and James Mead; "Producing a Musical Comedy"—Elbert Bowen and Ray Monte; "Getting Even With the Judge"—Janet Horst and Grant Wessel.

The annual $2,800 *Detroit Free Press* college scholarship contest was held in conjunction with the spring MSA meeting. Sponsored by the *Detroit Free Press* for the past thirty-five years, this contest is open to regional debate winners who nominate one debater to participate for the first prize of $1,200, a

second of prize of $800, and a third prize of $500, and three prizes of $100 each. Essays written on the topic, "The United Nations Should Be Significantly Strengthened," and speeches before a panel of judges were the basis for judging.

The MSA approved an amendment to their constitution at their spring meeting which now stipulates that area chairmen will hold office for two years. Elected to new terms of the several areas are the following people: Richard Heitzner and James Jaska, General Speech; Dan Julian and William Werk, Radio-TV; Donald Glancy and LaMont Okey, Theatre-Interpretation.

MINNESOTA

Officers elected Oct., 1960
Mr. Orville Olson, *President*
Hibbing High School
Hibbing, Minnesota
Mr. Frank Curry, *Sec.-Treas.*
Richfield High School
Richfield, Minnesota

The Minnesota Association of Teachers of Speech convened at Richfield High School on September 30 for its annual meeting. All superintendents and other school and college officials were invited to attend.

Mr. George Wilkins, Superintendent of Public Education of Illinois, was guest speaker. Dr. Ralph Nichols, University of Minnesota and B. H. Hill, Secretary of the Minnesota High School League also spoke.

Instructors of speech and school administrators in Minnesota held a panel discussion on "Speech in the State of Minnesota and the Proposed Minnesota State Curriculum for Speech."

MISSOURI

Officers elected Nov., 1960
Miss Georgia Bowman, *President*
William Jewell College
Liberty, Missouri
Mr. Robert Friedman, *Exec. Sec.*
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri
Mr. Robert Wilhoit, *Editor*
Speech News
Drury College
Springfield, Missouri

The Missouri Speech and Hearing Association publishes a news letter called *MSHA News*, which is sent to MSHA members twice each year, once in the fall and once in the spring.

The Executive Board of the Speech Association of Missouri, which includes teachers in all areas of speech, met in Columbia, Missouri, on May 6, 1961.

President Georgia Bowman appointed the following chairmen of committees: membership, Louis Banker; finance, Sherrod Collins; curriculum, Margaret Meredith; teacher training, Dorothy Weirich; standards, Nanabel Cassell; public relations, Harold McAnich.

A workshop for teachers of speech was held September 30, 1961 at the University of Missouri.

NEBRASKA

Officers elected Oct., 1960
Mr. Philip Kaye, *President*
Nebraska Wesleyan University
Lincoln, Nebraska
Miss Maxine Trauernicht, *Secretary*
University of Nebraska
Lincoln 8, Nebraska

The Nebraska Speech Teachers Association met on May 8, 1961, at Fremont. Mr. Ronald Kenney of Fremont High School was the host for the meeting. Morning sessions featured demonstration speeches and a panel discussion on the subject of public address.

Miss Mary Elizabeth Hamilton and Miss Margaret Nielsen, both from North High, Omaha, were honored in the first annual sixty page issue of the Nebraska Speech Teachers Bulletin as the outstanding high school teachers of the year in Nebraska.

Miss Lenore Ramsey was honored at the noon luncheon for her service as speech professor at Wayne State Teachers College.

In the afternoon session a panel of teachers discussed the place of theatre in the community. A group from Midland College presented a one-act play.

NORTH DAKOTA

OHIO

Officers elected for 1961-62
Mr. Tom Ludlum, *President*
Capital University
Columbus 9, Ohio
Mr. Tom McManus, *Sec.-Treas.*
Kent State University
Kent, Ohio

The Ohio Association of College Teachers of Speech (OACTS) voted at their Spring Meeting to publish a biannual journal. Dr. Paul Carmack will serve as the editor.

The Ohio Conference on Speech Education was held at Kent State University on October 14, 1961. Sectional meetings included the areas of theatre, debate, discussion, listening, and broadcasting. Dr. Ralph Nichols, President of the Speech Association of America, was guest speaker.

OKLAHOMA

Officers elected Oct., 1960
Doris Niles, *President*
Will Rogers High School
Tulsa, Oklahoma
Iona Freeman, *Exec.-Sec.*
Tulsa Central High School
Tulsa, Oklahoma

The Oklahoma Speech Association is experimenting with combining the Fall Speech Educators Conference with the sectional meetings of the Oklahoma Education Association Convention.

Meetings were held from Friday noon until Saturday noon at the Ramada Inn, Oklahoma City, on October 27 and 28. One session was entitled "Taking a Look at Speech in Oklahoma." Discussants were administrators interested in the field.

Other sessions were planned at different levels and for different areas. The dinner meeting was devoted to theatre.

A feature of the meeting was a "barter room," where teachers listened to tapes, viewed films, and examined scripts which have been used successfully.

Newly elected president of the Oklahoma Speech and Hearing Association is Thayne Hedges of Phillips University, Enid. The president-elect is Dr. Earl Blank of Northeastern State College at Tahlequah.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Officers elected May, 1961
Mr. Kenneth Erickson, *President*
Northern State College
Aberdeen, South Dakota
Mr. Alan Swanson, *Sec.-Treas.*
Milbank High School
Milbank, South Dakota
Mr. Harold Jordon, *Editor*
So. Dak. Speech Bulletin
State University
Vermillion, South Dakota

The South Dakota Speech Teachers Association was reorganized this spring into what is now called the Speech Association of South Dakota. The new organization represents a confederation of the existing speech associations in the State. Currently the organizational members include the So. Dak. High School Speech Association, the So. Dak. Intercollegiate Forensic Association, the So. Dak. Speech and Hearing Association, and the So. Dak. Grade School Speech Association.

The Constitution for the new Speech Association was adopted by speech teachers representing all the above organizations. The purpose of the Speech Association is to support the speech arts in the grade schools, high schools, and colleges of South Dakota; to coordinate speech programs; and to improve standards in the areas of teacher certification, curriculum planning and speech correction.

The high school superintendents of this state have organized the South Dakota High School Unified Activities Association. All high school activities including Music, Athletics, Agriculture, and Speech now come under the direction of this organization. The South Dakota High School Speech Association will continue to function and perform their duties as they have in the past, however, it will be subservient to the Unified Activities Association. Just what effect this will have on the High School Speech Association and its activities are not known.

Mr. O. W. Kolberg, who has coached debate at Lead High School for thirty-one years, is retiring at the end of this school year. Many coaches are familiar with the high quality work in speech performed by Mr. Kolberg.

The South Dakota High School Speech Association has released the high school calendar of speech tournaments and events for the 1961-62 school year. It has also published the poetry list to be used in declamation contests. The Association has announced the high school debate proposition, resolved: that the federal government should equalize educational opportunities by means of grants to the states for public elementary and secondary education.

WISCONSIN

Officers elected Nov., 1960
Mr. Hoyt Rawlings, *President*
West Allis Central High School
West Allis, Wisconsin
Mrs. Ethyl Rich, *Sec.-Treas.*
Baraboo High School
Baraboo, Wisconsin

The Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction has officially declared speech to be an academic rather than a "special" subject. Beginning with the academic year 1962-63, high school teachers of curricular speech classes must hold a minimum of an approved college minor in

speech preparation. Persons with at least twelve years experience as teachers of speech prior to July 1, 1962, may be licensed without meeting the above requirement. Persons with from eight to eleven years of experience as teachers of speech prior to July 1, 1962, may be licensed by completing six semester hours of college speech training. A course in speech fundamentals is required as part of the course work. Certification for coaching or directing extra-curricular speech activities will be recommended, but not required.

The 1961 State Spring Speech Contest sponsored by the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association which is affiliated with the University Extension Division, Department of Speech, was held on the Wisconsin campus on April 15. The event was attended by 1211 students from 338 high schools. The forty-eight judges at the contest represented speech departments from eleven colleges and universities in Wisconsin.

Two prominent members of the Board of Control of the WHSFA retired this year. Prof. Andrew T. Weaver has served as the Speech Advisor since 1929 and Mr. Harold Connors, Hurley, as the Superior District Chairman since 1943. Prof. Herman H. Brockhaus was named by the Board of Control to succeed Prof. Weaver as Advisor in Speech.

The first Summer High School Speech Institute was held on the University of Wisconsin campus from June 25 to July 15, with 60 students attending. All participants received instruction in basic principles of oral communication with specialized instruction available in forensics or dramatics. Dr. Thomas J. Murray, Director of Forensics at Wisconsin, was the director of this annual institute.

The Wisconsin Speech Association held its annual meeting concurrently with the Wisconsin Education Association Convention on November 3, in Milwaukee.

POST SCRIPT . . .

Beginning with this issue of the *Journal,* contributions for this column have come from an association news reporter from each state. News items concerning state speech associations should be sent to the reporter from the appropriate state. News items of general interest should be sent to the editor of this column. Reporters contributing to this issue are as follows: William E. Buys, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois; Jim Young, Taylor University, Upland, Indiana; Wil Linkugel, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas; Herb Hildebrandt, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; Frances McCurdy, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri; Donald Dedmon, St. Cloud State College, St. Cloud, Minnesota; Maxine Trauernicht, University of Nebraska, Lincoln 8, Nebraska; John S. Penn, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota; Doris Niles, Will Rogers High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; Paul H. Boase, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio; Kenneth Erickson, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota; Frederick E. Haug, Jr., University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

The 4th annual East Peoria High School Invitational Speech Tournament will be held January 20, 1962. A unique and interesting feature of this event is that over 200 local citizens act as judges for the tournament after receiving detailed instructions for judging. Pekin High has won the sweepstakes trophy in each of the previous tourneys.

Western Illinois University's new department of speech and dramatic art has completed its first academic year. The department is chaired by Dr. Ronald C. Gee and offers a major in general speech and in speech correction. A master's program is to begin in the fall of 1961.

The March, 1961 issue of *American Annals of the Deaf* carried an article by Associate Professor George Falconer entitled "A Mechanical Device for Teaching Sight Vocabulary to Young Deaf Children." The experimental teaching machine was developed at Illinois State Normal University and tested at the Illinois School for the deaf by Mr. Falconer. Subjects were eight seven year old deaf children. They learned 15 words in fifty minutes at the machine. A retest two weeks later to test retention was nearly perfect.

Forty-three students and teachers from seven colleges in Illinois participated in the first annual Interpretation Workshop on the University of Illinois campus, May 12 and 13. Plans for next year's workshop are already progressing, with the weekend of April 27 being chosen as the tentative date.

The University of Iowa held a Summer Repertory Theatre during July, 1961. In nightly rotation, four plays were performed for capacity audiences. Twenty-one actors played a total of 98 different roles during the three week run. The plays performed were *Macbeth, School for Scandal, The Doctor's Dilemma,* and *The Skin of Our Teeth.*

Over one hundred children will participate during the year in a University of Iowa study of learning from educational television. The study is being directed by Samuel Becker and is supported by a federal grant.

Allen Crafton, professor of speech at the University of Kansas retired in June, 1961 after 38 years on the K. U. faculty. He came to the University in 1923, as chairman of the department of speech and drama. He served as chairman for 33 years.

Gordon Beck of the University of Kansas has been appointed Editor of *Players Magazine* and William L. Kuhlke has been appointed Business Manager. Along with the change in editorial staff, the magazine will be expanded to include the publishing of new plays, monographs, and bibliographies. The new editorial office is: *Players Magazine,* Department of Speech and Drama, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

A new educational-professional summer theatre program has been established in Alexandria, Minnesota, in affiliation with the Speech Department of St. Cloud State College. A complete resort property was purchased in Alexandria early this year through a bond issue. The new Theatre

L'Homme Dieu is directed by Dr. Arthur Housman and R. Keith Michael. A premier season of ten full length productions was presented between June 27 and September 2.

A Stuttering Symposium was sponsored by the North Dakota State University Student Speech Therapists on April 28-29, 1961, at Fargo, North Dakota. The guest speakers were Dr. Robert West of Brooklyn College, Dr. Joseph Sheehan of U.C.L.A., Dr. Dean Williams of the University of Iowa, and Dr. James Aten of San Jose State College.

Dr. William Carmack and Dr. Roger Nebergall of the University of Oklahoma led six sessions on group communication for a management training program conducted by the 4th U. S. Army during the past year.

Miss Maybelle Conger of Central High School, Oklahoma City has been reappointed for the 8th year to the office of State Director of the National Thespian Society.

The University of Akron completed its first year of closed circuit television. During the 1960-61 academic year they telecast eleven hours of classes per week, including the lecture sections in beginning speech.

New facilities at Bowling Green State University include the "Joe E. Brown Theatre" with an experimental, flexible design. Equipped with changeable features to permit conventional proscenium staging, arena staging, and period staging, it will seat from 250 to 350 depending on which feature is in use.

On May 20, 1961, friends gathered at the University of Wisconsin to honor Professor Andrew Thomas Weaver who retired in June after devoting over forty years of service to his profession and the university. Speakers on the occasion were J. Martin Klotsche, Mark H. Ingram, and Frederick Haberman.

Therman G. Harris, Eastern (Michigan) High School's director of debate and forensics, was honored at a banquet May 26 in recognition of his outstanding record over a 25 year span.

The South Dakota Speech and Hearing Association met in Pierre, So. Dakota on February 18, 1961, and elected Ethel Bridgeford, president; James Walters, vice-president; Dick Terry, secretary-treasurer; and Mrs. Sharon Maris editor of the *So. Dakota Speech and Hearing Association Journal.*

Mr. William Saroyan, Pulitzer prize-winning playwright, and Mr. Howard Bay, designer and lighting expert of the American professional theatre, will be artists in residence at Purdue for the current academic year. As something unique and experi-

mental in college theatre, Mr. Saroyan will make up a play, writing and directing simultaneously on the stage of the ultra-modern Loeb Playhouse. This experiment will be similar to that done by Mr. Saroyan last year in the Theatre Royal in London when he created "Sam, The Highest Jumper of Them All." In addition to this feature in December, Mr. Saroyan is lecturing on playwriting and giving public lectures on contemporary theatre.

During the second semester Mr. Howard Bay will conduct seminars in scene design for the professional theatre and give four special lectures which will be open to the public.

Professor Leland S. Winch, Assistant Head of the Speech Department at Purdue University, who had been steadily recovering from a serious stroke suffered last December, died of an acute heart attack on September 26, 1961, after serving on the staff of Purdue University for over thirty years. He was respected as an outstanding teacher and as a supervisor of the teaching of inexperienced instructors and assistants.

The Purdue University Department of Speech will sponsor an unusually active forensic program this year. In addition to attending about twenty-five intercollegiate events, Purdue will play host to five major forensic conferences. The Twentieth Annual Midwestern Regional Conference of Tau Kappa Alpha was held at Purdue on October 20-21; the Fourteenth Annual Purdue Invitational Forensic Conference will be held November 16-18; the Fifteenth Annual Purdue Novice Debate Tournament will be held on February 10; and the District V West Point Qualifying Tournament will be held at Purdue on March 16-17.

The Twenty-ninth Annual High School Debaters' Conference and Nineteenth Annual Indiana High School Legislative Assembly will be held on the Purdue University campus December 8 and 9. The traditional legislative meetings, demonstration debates, and extemporaneous speaking events will be held. An innovation this year will be three rounds of discussion and a discussion clinic. Outstanding people in the fields of speech and politics have been invited to attend. Approximately 900 students and teachers from 90 high schools in Indiana are expected. Dr. John T. Rickey of the Department of Speech is director of the Conference.

The Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials of the National University Extension Association has announced the following problem areas, discussion-questions and debate propositions for the current year.

Problem Area: What should be the role of the federal government in education?

Discussion Questions:

1. Should the federal government provide the states with aid for education?
2. Should federal aid be provided for teachers' salaries?
3. Should federal aid be provided for qualified students?

Debate Propositions:

1. Resolved: That the federal government should provide additional aid for public

school facilities.
2. Resolved: That the federal government should guarantee an opportunity for higher education to qualified high school graduates.
3. Resolved: That the federal government should equalize educational opportunity by means of grants to the states for public elementary and secondary education.

Each state league is free to choose from these questions and propositions or to phrase its own. Each year, however, the majority of high schools use the suggestions of the NUEA Committee.

The Committee publishes *The Discussion and Debate Manual* and sponsors a free materials program each year. Any questions about materials or the general function of the NUEA Committee should be directed to Bower Aly, Executive Secretary, Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials, Box 5302, University Station, Eugene, Oregon.

International Debate: The meeting to select debaters to tour Britain this winter and spring was held at Sheraton Towers, Chicago, May 14-15. Nine debaters selected in regional screenings were invited to the meeting, but only seven were able to make the trip. The conclave was directed by Miss Judith Sayers, Institute of International Education, and Franklin R. Shirley, Wake Forest College, chairman of the SAA Committee on Internatinal Discussion and Debate. Also serving on the board of judges were: Mary Louise Gehring, Stetson University; Martin J. Holcomb, Augustana College; James H. McBath, University of Southern California; Glen E. Mills, Northwestern University; Richard Murphy, University of Illinois.

Taped Discussion Contest: The deadline for entries for the Eleventh Annual National Contest in Public Discussion is November 15. The tape recorded discussions should be sent to Wayne N. Thompson, University of Illinois Undergraduate Division, Navy Pier, Chicago 11, Illinois.

A book on the Nixon-Kennedy debates, to which leading figures in the television industry and the communications field are contributing, will be published under the title *The Great Debates* late this fall by Indiana University Press. Contributors include Robert Sarnoff, Frank Stanton, Gilbert Seldes, Charles A. Siepmann, Samuel L. Becker, and Douglass Cater. They will discuss the history, background, and political significance of the debates. Professors Herbert Seltz and Richard Yoakam of the Indiana University Department of Radio-Television will analyze the technical and production aspects of the telecasts. The book will also contain four studies on the effects of the debates on voters in various regions of the country by Percy Tannenbaum, Paul Deutschmann, Richard F. Carter, Sidney Kraus, and Raymond Smith. The texts of the four debates will be included.

The Illinois Speech Association held their Fall Convention on November 3 and 4 at Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

SUMMER WORKSHOPS AND CONFERENCES

A Summer Studio Theatre was conducted at St. Louis University by John I. C. Foreman with a group of fourteen high school students who were awarded scholarships on a competitive basis. Two productions climaxed the summer school experiment.

The Thirtieth Annual Workshop in Discussion and Debate under the direction of seven high school teachers, supervised by Todd G. Willy, was held at the University of Iowa. Another workshop, in radio and television, was supervised by H. Clay Harshbarger. A third workshop, the Thirtieth Annual Workshop in Dramatic Art, presented five plays under the direction of high school teachers supervised by Philip Benson. All of these workshops served as laboratories for twenty-four teachers from seven states enrolled in the annual Workshop in Teaching Speech and Dramatic Art conducted by Hugh F. Seabury. One hundred forty high school students participated.

The University of Kansas sponsored its annual High School Speech and Drama Institute for high school students under the direction of the departmental staff. Courses and workshop sessions were conducted in debate, oral interpretation, public speaking, and drama.

The University of Minnesota held two workshops for high school students, June 12 to July 14. The workshop in drama, climaxed by a production of *The Skin of Our Teeth*, was directed by Arthur Ballet. Sir Tyrone Guthrie visited for a week of daily lectures. George Shapiro directed the forensics workshop.

Fifty-nine high school students from eleven states and Canada participated in the dramatic and forensic activities of the University of Wisconsin High School Speech Institute, June 26 to July 15. Thomas Murray served as director of the Institute.

The University of Chicago sponsored a conference, "Dialog: The American Theatre Today," August 4-6. Included on the program were Harold Clurman, William Inge, Basil Rathbone, Kenneth Burke, Reuel Denny, and Charles Kligerman.

Lecturers at the University of Denver's Basic Communication Workshop this summer were William Pemberton, communication consultant, San Francisco; Allen Walker Read, English Department, Columbia University; Dominick A. Barbara, Karen Horney Clinic, New York; and Jon Eisenson, Queens College.

Over two hundred people attended the annual Summer Speech Conference at the University of Michigan, July 13. Speakers included John Gassner, Yale University; Ralph Nichols, University of Minnesota; Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne State University; Lionel Crocker, Denison University; Charlotte Lee, Northwestern University; Mary Rose Costello, Henry Ford Hospital; Herbert J. Oyer, Michigan State University; Harold O. Haskitt, Jr., General Motors Institute; Martin G. Atkins and Emil R. Pfister, Central Michigan University; William Work, Eastern Michigan University;

Robert Paul Dye, Western Michigan University; Edward Stasheff, University of Michigan.

The University of Wisconsin held its annual Speech Conference on June 29. Speakers were Donald K. Smith, University of Minnesota; Andrew T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin; Barbara Schindler, University of Colorado; Wallace Smith, Evanston, Illinois, Township High School; Eugene Cramer, Lincoln High School, Manitowoc, Wisconsin; and Arnold Melzer, Sheboygan, Wisconsin, South High School. In addition to the faculty of the department, the staff for the annual Wisconsin Idea Theatre was augmented by visiting lecturers: Richard Hoover, general manager of the Pittsburgh Playhouse; Jules Irving, San Francisco State College; Eric Salmon, British theatrical producer; John Wray Young and Margaret Mary Young, Shreveport, Louisiana, Little Theatre.

Thirty-nine students gathered at Illinois State Normal University for the first Summer High School Institute, July 9-29. Students chose work in either forensics or drama.

Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, offered its Second Annual High School Debate Coaches Institute last summer. Richard A. Hildreth supervised the program of seminars and research.

Kent State University sponsored its Twenty-sixth Annual High School Speech Institute. Thirty high school sophomores and juniors participated in radio-television speaking, discussion and debate, public speaking, interpretation, and theatre. The workshop was climaxed by a campus theatrical performance and a debate televised on WEWS-TV, Cleveland.

Two complementary workshops were conducted at Purdue, June 27 through July 15. High school drama students "were given intensive training in voice, diction, body movement, fencing, makeup, acting and stagecraft." They also produced the children's play, *Rumpelstiltskin*. At the same time, high school teachers participated in a workshop emphasizing play selection, techniques of direction, and stage settings and lighting.

Special Summer Session workshops at Marquette University included the following: Dr. Hugo Hellman, director of the School of Speech, conducted a one-week workshop in parliamentary procedure. Dr. Joseph Laine supervised a two-week workshop in coaching debate, which included case development of the 1961-62 high school question. A two-week conference was conducted by Leo Jones in play construction, including the techniques of creating dramas and adapting materials to dramatic form. Alfred J. Sokolnicki, supervisor of the Speech and Hearing Habilitation Center, directed a two-week program in speech defects, particularly aimed at classroom teachers. A one-week workshop in special techniques for adapting materials in the teacher's own field for use on television was conducted by Raymond T. Bedwell.

CONVENTION CALENDAR

Speech Association of America: Statler Hilton, New York, December 27-30; (1962, Cleveland; 1963 [August], Denver; 1964, Chicago).

American Educational Theatre Association: University of Oregon, August 20-22; (1963, University of Minnesota, August 25-27; 1964, University of Pittsburgh, August 27-29).

National Society for the Study of Communication: with SAA in New York.

NUEA Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials: with SAA in New York.

Central States Speech Association: Hotel Sherman, Chicago, April 6-7, 1962; (1963, Morrison Hotel, Chicago, April 5-6).

Eastern States Speech Association: Henry Hudson Hotel, New York, April 12-14, 1962.

New England States Speech Association: Eastern Slope Inn, North Conway, New Hampshire, November 24-25, 1961.

Southern States Speech Association: Hotel Driskill, Austin, Texas, April 5-6, 1962; (High School and College Forensic Meet and Student Congress, April 1-6, 1962).

Western States Speech Association: Fresno State College, November 23-25, 1961.

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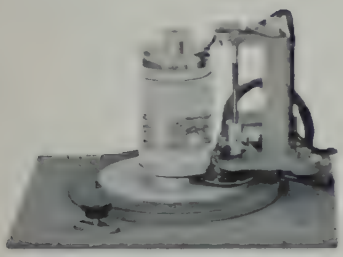

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